The Treatise Committee for Jeffrey Matthew Van Slyke

Certifies that this is the approved version of the following treatise:

POLICE ETHICS TRAINING: PREFERRED MODES OF TEACHING IN HIGHER EDUCATION LAW ENFORCEMENT

Committee:

Marilyn C. Kameen, Supervisor

Lynda G. Cleveland

William F. Lasher

Leslie A. Moore

Patricia A. Somers

POLICE ETHICS TRAINING: PREFERRED MODES OF TEACHING IN HIGHER EDUCATION LAW ENFORCEMENT

by

Jeffrey Matthew Van Slyke, B. S. C. J.; M. P. A.

Treatise

Presented to the Faculty of the Graduate School of

The University of Texas at Austin

in Partial Fulfillment

of the Requirements

for the Degree of

Doctor of Education

The University of Texas at Austin

December 2007

Dedication

To my Dad, Gerald L. Van Slyke,
who had the courage to leave the farm
and provided me with the opportunity to succeed.

Acknowledgements

My interest in police ethics evolved from having witnessed a number of misconduct and behavioral incidents during my formative years in law enforcement. From observing cadets cheating on exams during the police academy to encountering officers that drank alcohol or slept on duty, and who took drugs from suspects for personal use, I have encountered troubled officers that lacked direction or guidance from supervisors regarding ethical expectations. As my career path progressed into the position of a police chief, I became acutely aware that police departments at institutions of higher education were not immune to the discrepancies that result from unethical behavior.

The primary mission of higher education law enforcement is to promote and maintain the safety and welfare of the campus community. Doing so requires police officers to nurture the trust of the public by exhibiting a commitment to ethical based conduct. Thus, it is incumbent upon law enforcement administrators to exert the leadership necessary to develop and prepare police officers with an ethical skill set. For that reason, this treatise seeks to assist leaders in the law enforcement profession with a better understanding of the inherent responsibility associated with teaching police ethics.

Working on this treatise has proven to be a rich and rewarding experience thanks to the many individuals associated with this study. I am indebted to each of the respective police chiefs who participated in this study and provided meaningful information from their vast experience. Also, to the directors and instructors who provided insight about the learning environment of a law enforcement academy, as well as the officers of each

university police department who provided me with information necessary to complete this research study.

I would also like to express my sincere appreciation to my treatise supervisor, Marilyn C. Kameen, whose leadership, patience, and counsel kept me focused with a purposeful resolve. To the diligent members of my treatise committee – Lynda G. Cleveland William F. Lasher, Leslie A. Moore, and Patricia Somers – I would like to express my gratitude for their willingness to lend their expertise and guidance. Collectively and individually, they provided a constant source of stimulation and support. A special thanks also to Shelly Gehrke for her encouragement and input – truly a cohort second to none.

Most notably, I am grateful to my wife Renee, daughter Jessica, and two sons Matthew and Jacob whose encouragement and support enabled me to transform this vision into reality. My hope is that I have instilled in each of my children a love for reading and writing and an insatiable curiosity about the world – the bar has now been set!

Finally, I would be remiss to not acknowledge God's grace and sufficiency throughout the years of pursuing and completing this degree:

"I have fought the good fight, I have finished the race, I have kept the faith."

II Timothy 4:7

Police Ethics Training: Preferred Modes of Teaching in Higher Education Law Enforcement

Publication No._____

Jeffrey Matthew Van Slyke, Ed. D.

The University of Texas at Austin, 2007

Supervisor: Marilyn C. Kameen

Although there is a paucity of research on the subject of police ethics training, there remains insufficient study about the modes used to teach police ethics. In an effort to institutionalize ethics among police officers, an established framework for teaching police ethics is a critical component of a successful training program. Specifically, this study sought to understand what constitutes viable modes of teaching police ethics to officers in the higher education law enforcement profession. The research question for this study asked the following: what are the preferred modes of instruction used to teach police ethics in the higher education law enforcement profession? A literature review revealed several modes of instruction used to provide police ethics training without consensus as to which one is preferred: case study, lectures, role-playing, texts/publications, and videos. This study examined the modes used to teach police ethics from several perspectives: *administrators* – police chiefs/law enforcement academy directors; *facilitators* – university police department field-training instructors/law enforcement academy instructors; and *consumers* – police officers. Basic qualitative research design and data gathering methods were chosen for this study. An examination and analysis of a Likert survey, interviews and documents relating to teaching police ethics were conducted. The intention of the survey was to elicit perspectives of quality

and substance specific to the modes used to teach police ethics and to develop questions for the interview process; thereby, enhancing the integrity and purpose of the study. The quantitative data were descriptive, not inferential; therefore, they were used as explanatory – merely reporting the occurrences to the qualitative findings.

The data revealed that the police academy and department in-service adult learning environments are in need of improvement regarding teaching practices, and that the relationship between instructor and consumer (officer) does not endear itself to an engaging classroom experience or optimal level of learning. The data also indicated that administrators and consumers preferred the case study mode to teach police ethics, while the facilitators preferred lecture. Implications of this study included identifying principles of adult learning that will improve the facilitator's ability to teach police ethics. Moreover, the research revealed that understanding the preferred modes used to teach police ethics is an important aspect of the adult learning process. Specifically, the case study mode for teaching police ethics provided an ethical framework to prepare officers for real world situations and enhanced the opportunity to nurture career development paths. Therefore, the information and insights gained from this study provide a useful baseline of data from which to develop future model ethics-training programs in the higher education law enforcement profession.

Table of Contents

List of Tables

Chapter 1: Introduction

The underpinning of the relationship between the police and the public is trust, and law enforcement officers must maintain standards of conduct that do not erode that public trust. Braunstein and Tyre (1992) contended that the public's trust is dependent upon the expectation that officers of a police department adhere to organizational values. This is especially true given that the police, as individuals and as an institution of government, must work to meet the challenge of enforcing laws, maintaining order, and keeping the peace.

Higher education law enforcement agencies expend enormous time and resources to develop and improve officer performance. Such training is replete with contemporary technology commensurate with the varied responsibilities placed on officers. The very nature of police work makes ethics an important issue for public concern. According to Redlinger (1993), "While there is a great deal of discussion of police ethics, there is a paucity of data concerning the current practices of training academies and the values they impart with regard to contemporary ethical problems in policing" (p. 1). Pollack (1993) also maintained that the relative obscurity of police ethics training relates to the traditional reactive paradigm that focuses on the aftermath of wrongdoing and emphasizes the discipline and punishment of officers. In recognizing the value of officer development, it is essential that police ethics training utilize teaching modes that compliment the adult learning process. The deficiencies in police ethics training, along with observation of unethical officer conduct, illustrate the need for research that examines the teaching modes used in the higher education law enforcement profession.

ETHICS DEFINED

The term “ethics” has many definitions; philosophers of ethics have defined it several ways. The following definitions of ethics are commonly used during the training of police officers:

- Ethics is a code of values that guides our choices and actions and determines the purpose and course of our lives. Ethics is not a written code or credo, it is about what we do (Josephson, 1995).
- Ethics concerns the study of what is morally right and wrong. Ethics is about the value of moral conduct, a sense of duty and honor, responsibility, and character (Delattre, 2002).

Crank and Caldero (2000) defined ethics as “values related to certain behaviors in a profession or occupational specialization” (p. 259). Ethical development includes the belief that any profession, especially one that serves social ends, has an inherent worth, which can be corrupted through inattention to precepts of propriety and through misguided behavior of individual members of that profession (Schmalleger, 1991). Webster defined ethics as the study of the general nature of morals and the specific moral choices an individual makes in relating to others (Merriam-Webster, 2005). Essentially, ethics is a philosophical study of how we should live, and is referenced interchangeably with morals and values (Kohlberg, 1981).

Swope (1998) asserted that police officers must be made aware that ethical behavior is in their own best interest and that “policing our own” (p. 37) is the only option to maintain that standard. Miller (1997) maintained that ethics denotes a systematic, rational reflection upon a particular behavior, and values are defined as

standards or ideals that serve as guides for conduct, behavior, and decision-making. Delattre (2002) characterized ethics as honesty, integrity, and morality that involves doing the right thing at the right time in the right way for the right reason. This infers that people will take the correct action for altruistic reasons, not just because they are forced or because someone is watching them. According to Schmalleger (1991), ethics can be divided into two distinct categories: on-the-job and personal ethics. On-the-job ethics are beliefs and values shared by co-workers, many of which are not always recognized by those outside the profession. Crank and Caldero (2000) stated that personal ethics are beliefs and values acquired through life experience, and may include those learned from ethnic group participation, socialization into gender specific roles, and family routines (p. 31).

Administrators of law enforcement agencies often assume that all officers have developed strong personal ethics and any deficiencies in moral judgment will be instilled through direct association with other police officers in the agency (Souryal, 1998). Unfortunately, the cultural dynamics of police work can impede or erode an officer's ability to develop a set of values and beliefs. As such, an atmosphere that clearly gives high priority to ethical behavior and integrates ethics into every part of the department is most likely to produce ethically sound officers (Braunstein & Tyre, 1992). In an effort to institutionalize ethics among police officers, an established framework for teaching police ethics should be a necessary component of a training program.

ETHICAL ANTECEDENTS

To some degree, people resent the presence of police. The police are a reminder of society's inability to live together, to relate to one another peacefully, and to regulate the behavior of others informally. Although we may recognize the need for the police and

the services they provide, this does not mean that we accept or embrace their role in society, their power, their authority, or the means by which they fulfill their mission. While the thought of having an incorruptible profession is virtuous, and given the fact that deviance is a character flaw of human nature, it is not surprising that police officers also engage in occupational misconduct (Delattre, 2002). Since police misconduct is linked to a compromise of ethical standards, the law enforcement profession must create a culture that holds officers accountable for their behavior and upholds the public trust (Barker, 1996). Discussions of ethics, morals, and values have recently gained a more prominent place within certain occupations. Revelation of the activities of corrupt politicians, businessmen, and clergy has given rise to a renewed interest in moral and ethical issues. According to Hess and Wrobleski (1993), "Ethics has become the hot topic in schools of business, medicine and the law" (p. 161). Such a profound statement would lend itself to cautious optimism regarding the present ethical and moral behavior of certain professions. Yet, the following are actual scenarios this researcher has experienced during an 18-year career as a police chief in higher education law enforcement. In an effort to maintain a degree of confidentiality, the names, dates, and locations of the incidents have not been disclosed:

- While investigating a vehicle accident, a male officer observes a female student sitting in her vehicle that has struck a stop sign. As the officer assists the female student in removing her vehicle from the curb, he detects an odor of alcohol and determines that she is intoxicated. The officer also observes that the female student is scantly dressed and not wearing under garments. A conversation ensues and both parties agree to park the damaged vehicle. The female student then enters the officer's patrol vehicle and they drive to the fourth floor of a nearby

parking garage. The female engages in oral sex with the officer. They depart from the garage and she is escorted back to her vehicle and drives away. The female student was not charged for driving while intoxicated or cited for damage to state property. Subsequent to an internal investigation, the officer resigns and is later arrested for sexual assault.

- Two university police officers have been dating for several months. The male officer discovers that his female partner is also having a relationship with an officer of another law enforcement agency. The female officer arrives at her home and discovers it is on fire. Arson investigators conclude that someone poured a flammable substance on the female officer's bed and torched it. No other evidence is found and there are no witnesses. Subsequent to a department internal affairs investigation, the male officer was interviewed and found to have lied regarding his alibi. He was eventually terminated.
- A police chief at a major university crashes his pickup truck in a ditch and leaves the scene. The subsequent investigation revealed that the police chief was drunk, and had a woman in the vehicle with whom he was having an affair. The incident occurred while the police chief was supposedly on a business trip at a law enforcement conference. He, however, utilized university resources for personal pleasure and lied about the incident. The police chief was arrested, convicted for driving under the influence, and terminated.
- A university police officer drives a patrol vehicle off campus into an area of the city known to be frequented by prostitutes. The officer stops at an intersection and engages in a conversation with a female about having sex with her in his patrol car. The following day, the woman contacts the university police department concerning the officer's actions. During the course of a department internal

investigation, the officer denies that the incident took place. Computer aided dispatch records corroborate the complainant's story. The officer was terminated for unethical behavior.

- While in the presence of fellow officers, a university police officer places one bullet into his six-shot revolver, spins the cylinder, places the weapon to his head, and fires (Russian-roulette). The officer performs this stunt several times much to the concern of his peers. Fearing retaliation, fellow officers wait three weeks before reporting the incident to the police chief. During a department investigation, the officer in question lies about his actions, then recants and admits he took such action. The officer was terminated for unethical behavior.
- Footprints appear on the wall above the couch in the office of the university police chief. Later, it is discovered that a female officer working the late-night shift has accessed the chief's office with her boyfriend. The subsequent investigation reveals that this officer obtained an unauthorized key to the chief's office. The female officer was asked about the nature of accessing the chief's office. The officer indicated that she needed an area to "study" on her break. When asked about why her boyfriend was also present, the officer stated, "to be tutored in biology." The officer was disciplined for unauthorized access to an administrative office and she eventually sought other employment.

As illustrated by the preceding anecdotes, police work can involve subtle actions and behavior that may lead to serious consequences, which further serve as an impetus to pursue a study about understanding the modes to teach police ethics in the higher education law enforcement profession.

STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

While acting with integrity and ethicalness are fundamental elements that are expected by both the public and the police profession, it is almost inconceivable that something so elementary would need to be continually reinforced. All too frequently, however, the public's confidence in law enforcement is shaken by reports of officers falling victim to corruption and departments subverted by poor leadership (Cooksey, 1991). Likewise, concerns about police ethics training are not new, and public accountability has continued to raise concerns about the ethical behavior of police officers. O'Malley (1997) contended that while police departments may have increased the number of required ethics related classes, the training environment itself has not changed dramatically. According to Trautman (2001), "If a department is typical of most agencies, it has never conducted ethics training" (p. 8). Such indifference regarding police ethics training has prompted the International Association of Chiefs of Police to state the following:

> Ethics is our greatest training and leadership need today and into the next century. In addition to the fact that most departments do not conduct ethics training, nothing is more devastating to individual departments and our entire profession than uncovered scandals or discovered acts of officer misconduct and unethical behavior. (Ad Hoc- IACP, 1997, p. 1)

The police ethics training problem is profoundly illustrated by Gilmartin and Harris (1998):

> Ethics training can no longer be seen as window dressing that makes good press after an embarrassing incident hits the front page. Significant changes in the way law enforcement ethics is conceptualized, taught and integrated throughout an organization are needed. Ethics is typically taught during the basic academy or at in-service training after an embarrassing situation erupts. It is often seen by instructors and students alike as a class that "has to be taught," but one which nobody really wants to talk about. (p. 2)

RESEARCH QUESTIONS

Thus, the need for police ethics training has prompted this researcher to examine how ethics training is provided to officers in the higher education law enforcement profession. Specifically, the research questions guiding this study were: 1) Can identifying the preferred modes provide instructors with an opportunity to develop an optimum classroom experience for adult learners? and 2) What are the preferred modes used for teaching police ethics?

The study was not intended to determine the most effective modes to teach police ethics in order to reduce unethical behavior or improve ethical development of police officers. Rather, this study sought to identify perspectives about the ideal or favorite ways to teach police ethics, as opposed to identifying whether the content taught will be of any value to an officer. Analogous to this distinction would be determining what type of television a person preferred (high definition, liquid crystal display, plasma, or cathode ray tube) as opposed to examining the value of the program content actually watched. Again, the preferred delivery of content was examined (television/mode of teaching ethics) and not whether the content watched or taught is of benefit. Those issues are topics for further research and have not been addressed in the context of this study.

PURPOSE OF THE STUDY

The purpose of this study was to determine the preferred modes used to teach police ethics within the higher education law enforcement profession. Specifically, this study examined the perspectives of higher education law enforcement administrators, law enforcement academy directors, instructors that teach ethics, and police officers who receive instruction regarding modes used to teach police ethics. Research has indicated that there are several common modes of instructional delivery used to provide police

ethics training: lectures, role-playing, readings (texts/publications), dilemmas or case studies, (Pollock & Becker, 1995), and training videos (Sherman, 1999). This study has sought to determine which was most preferred.

Arnzen (2004) indicated that teaching is best defined as the organization of learning, and may be thought of as the establishment of a situation in which it is hoped that effective learning will take place. In that regard, Kim and Kellough (1987) identified two avenues for selecting a mode of delivery specific to the adult learning process. They described the first mode as "the traditional or didactic mode where knowledge is passed on to the learners via the teachers or from content reading in a textbook or both" (p. 202). For example, Zenger and Zenger (1990) defined the traditional lecture as “an oral presentation given to a class by the teacher” (p. 31).

Kim and Kellough (1987) described the second access mode as an instructor who provided students with “information and experiences” so “they develop knowledge and skills” (p. 202). According to Glickman and Gordon (2006), instructors have many presentation methods from which to choose that allow them to actualize instructional objectives, while Kim and Kellough (1987) assert that instructors are comfortable with the traditional method because they remain in control of content and time. Insights learned from this study have identified preferred modes of delivery for teaching police ethics training specific to the field of higher education law enforcement that will provide instructors with an opportunity to develop an optimum classroom experience for adult learners.

SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

The purpose of police ethics training is to provide a learning experience that emphasizes to police officers that they should do the right thing because it is the right thing to do – not out of fear of being caught. Unfortunately, ethics training is not at the

forefront of most law enforcement academy curricula, as it competes for classroom time with more glamorous and direct-liability subjects such as firearms, non-lethal weapons, defensive tactics, pursuit driving, and the laws of arrest, search and seizure (Jones, Owens, & Smith, 1995). According to a report submitted by the International Association of Chiefs of Police regarding police ethics training:

> Questions about how much time was devoted to ethics training provided for some interesting findings. A majority of the respondents (70.5 percent) said that they provided four classroom hours or less of programming. Only 16.8 percent of the respondents mentioned an eight-hour day of training reserved for ethics. For supervisors, 65.1 percent of the departments said they received some kind of ethics training, but again it was generally offered for four hours or less. Interestingly, although most saw a high need for ethics training, the amount of time earmarked for this activity was far less than what might be expected. (Ad Hoc- IACP, 1997, p. 2)

Likewise, while serving as a police academy instructor for the state of Texas, the researcher experienced the time constraint associated with providing an eight-hour block of police ethics training in a six-hour period. Within that timeframe, it was difficult to acquire the trust of the class, cover the required objectives, and develop a comfort level for honest participation and input. Several years after the IACP report, Trautman and Prevost (2005) asserted the following:

> Police ethics training became popular after the International Association of Chief's of Police established an Ad Hoc Ethics Training Committee in 1995. Now, a decade later, the need is just as great, there are thousands of trainers and consultants presenting a multitude of instruction variations. The major difference between then and now lies in new research and our improved understanding about how to conduct ethics training. (p. 1)

Typically, campus police departments have evolved in response to the expectations of state legislatures, boards of trustees, faculty, parents, students, alumni, and the administrative leadership of institutions. These needs are normally clarified and defined by the mission statement of the academic institution. In addition, the goals and objectives of a campus police department should be aligned with the institution's academic mission

and strongly reinforced by the campus police administrative leadership (Nichols, 1997). As a legitimate expression of public expectations, the higher education law enforcement profession has the responsibility to ensure that the behavior and performance of campus police officers are consistent with the fundamental mission of higher education – "transforming lives for the betterment of society" (Smith, 1997, p. 2).

In his article entitled "Why Police Ethics?" Dr. Gary W. Sykes, Director of the Southwestern Law Enforcement Institute, discussed the need for increased attention to this vital area. He noted that all of the historical efforts to enhance police accountability have relied on rules and punishment. These efforts include court decisions, administrative and procedural due process, and the civil process that relies on punitive measures to deter officer conduct. He argued that these "rule-based systems of accountability seem insufficient if officers hold differing views or there is a subculture which nurtures values different from the ideals of democratic policing" (Sykes, 1993, p. 1). He closed by stating:

> The quality of policing in a democratic society must rely on the quality of the people doing the work. Providing officers with an educational experience that enhances ethical consciousness with the tools to make ethical decisions is not the only step, but must be the next step. (Sykes, 1993, p. 4)

Moreover, Forrest (1996) asserted that it is necessary to preserve the public trust and maintain organizational integrity by communicating ethical standards that officers can use when deciding what is right and what is wrong.

Police officers make ethical decisions every time they use some value or moral basis to decide how to act. When confronted with a routine situation, a police officer has to decide the right way to act and avoid doing the wrong thing. Nichols (1997) observed that the success of police officers on a college campus is contingent upon modeling ethical behavior while performing their duties, especially while assisting students who

have slipped and made a mistake. Grant (2002) maintained that campus police officers are teachers who should set the ethical example for a community that not only promotes an ethical profession but also influences society in becoming more ethical as well. Van Slyke (1996) provided a perspective on the importance of ethical conduct in higher education law enforcement:

> Although no profession is completely without its share of unethical behavior, the effects of police impropriety and incompetence are especially debilitating and repulsive in the eyes of the public, particularly when such incidents occur at an institution of higher learning. Nothing can be more demoralizing to a campus community than to know that those who were sworn to serve and protect, had compromised their official capacity as a result of illicit or unseemly behavior. Obviously, then, as those entrusted with the responsibility of preserving law and order in society, it is imperative that police officers who work at college and university campuses consistently model the character that promotes a high standard of integrity and ethical conduct. (p. 22)

As such, the complexities associated with an academic community that consists of predominantly intelligent, sensitive, creative and young individuals require a campus police agency to serve with the highest commitment to ethicalness and competency. A campus police department is successful to the extent that it responds to and meets the needs of this very complex, diverse, and sometimes challenging campus community (Powell, Pander, & Nielsen, 1994). Thus, the significance of this study was to understand the modes used to teach police ethics at campus police departments and law enforcement academies.

DEFINITION OF TERMS

The following terms and their corresponding definitions were used for this study: Campus Police: a subdivision of a college or university with the responsibility of promoting and maintaining the safety and welfare of the faculty, staff, students, and

others who have interest on the campus, as well as the protection of the physical properties of the school (Nichols, 1997).

- Ethics: A set of standards developed by human reason and experience by which human actions are determined as humanly right or wrong, good or evil (Braswell, McCarthy, & McCarthy, 1998).
- Ethical: Acting in accordance with the accepted principles of right and wrong that govern the conduct of a group (Braswell, McCarthy, & McCarthy 1998).
- External Ethics: Organizationally based ethical standards. They are administrative codes implemented by police administrators to inform officers about organizationally correct behavior (Crank & Caldero, 2000).
- Field-Training Officer (FTO): An experienced police officer assigned to provide training and supervision of new officers prior to or upon completion of the police academy (Walker, 2005).
- Higher Education Law Enforcement: A specialized practice of providing law enforcement services based upon prevention and intervention strategies at institutions of higher learning (Nichols, 1987).
- Internal Ethics: The sense of ethical and moral responsibility that police officers maintain concerning what constitutes correct behavior (Crank & Caldero, 2000).
- Moral Resolve: The ability to counter weaknesses of the will, susceptibility to temptations, and the loss of self-control. Moral resolve assists officers in their ability to resist the pressures to compromise their ethics (Kleinig, 1996).
- Occupational Socialization: The process by which police recruits learn the values, beliefs, habits, and norms of a law enforcement organization (Crank & Caldero, 2000).

- Police Basic Training: Also referred to as police academy training that is designed to prepare newly hired police officers in county, higher education, municipal or state police agencies the fundamental aspects of the law enforcement profession (Leonard & More, 1971).
- Police Culture: The accepted practices, rules, and principles of conduct that officers consider according to a particular situation. It also includes generalized beliefs about police work (Manning, 1989).
- Police Deviance: A much broader term than corruption that includes all activities which are inconsistent with the norms, values, or ethics of both society and the police profession (Barker & Carter, 1994).
- Police Discretion: The ability to choose among alternatives when making decisions. In a general sense, discretion refers to all police decision-making (Crank & Caldero, 2000).
- Police Ethics: A prescribed set of values which reflect a commitment to standards of quality police services and which demonstrate a concern for the relationship between the police and the public (Kleinig, 1996).
- Police Integrity: The normative inclination among police to resist temptations to abuse the rights and privileges of their occupation (U.S. Department of Justice, December 2005).
- Police In-Service Training: The training police officers receive, subsequent to police basic training, that is designed to maintain or enhance knowledge and skills related to the performance of their duties as police officers; commonly referred to as continuing education (Leonard & More, 1971).

- Police Misconduct: The impropriety of office, not misuse of authority. It is wrongdoing, the appearance of wrongdoing, or puzzling behavior that violates a department's policies and procedures (Kleinig, 1996).
- Standard Operating Procedures: The texts of all departmental policies that officers are expected to know and use as a guide to behavior and work performance (Crank & Caldero, 2000).
- Teaching Modes: A descriptive manner or form of instruction.
- Values: Enduring beliefs, principles, standards, and qualities that are considered worthwhile or highly esteemed (Crank & Caldero, 2000).

SUMMARY

While there is growing support and concern related to organizational ethics in many areas such as government, corporate management, health care, public administration, and even in the academic realm (Eisenberg & Riley, 2001), there remains a dearth of literature about modes used for teaching police ethics. The relative obscurity of police ethics is recognized by Kleinig (1996) who observed, "For the most part, the ethical concerns of police have been ignored by academic writers" (p. 7). The inclination for most writers has been to focus on other ethical issues in law enforcement such as corruption, temptation, gratuities, hiring practices, integrity, leadership, and organizational culture. The researcher, however, has become a strong advocate of police ethics training due to personal observation of unethical behavior and the lack of attention for teaching police ethics. O'Malley (1997) mentioned:

> At first glance, ethics in law enforcement may appear to be a simple issue. Some stress that in formulating a coordinated approach, managers should consider the value of a formalized code of ethics, the importance of training, and the potential benefits of higher education. Near-unanimous support exists for the value of training in promoting ethical behavior. Although more study is needed in this

> area, some empirical evidence supports the contention that formal ethics training fosters improved ethical behavior. (p. 1)

Thus, the significance of this study was to examine differing perspectives about the preferred modes to teach police ethics in higher education law enforcement. The organization of this study was as follows. Chapter 1 introduced ethical antecedents and presented the purpose of the study, statement of the problem, and definitions of terms relevant to the research. Chapter 2 includes an overview of the history of higher education law enforcement followed by a literature review of sources related to the research topic. Chapter 3 provides the research methodology that describes the data collection and analysis process. Chapter 4 presents the information found from a survey, participant interviews, and document analysis. Chapter 5 provides a summary of findings and recommendations concerning preferred modes of teaching that may enhance police ethics-training programs in the higher education law enforcement profession.

Chapter 2: Literature Review

Higher education law enforcement operates in a highly dynamic, diverse, and specialized environment. On a daily basis, campus police officers are expected to make appropriate decisions based upon moral and ethical reasoning. Thus, it would stand to reason that modes used for teaching police ethics provide the optimum experience for the adult learner. In an effort to expand the reader's understanding of the research topic, this literature review was organized to discuss the following: a historical perspective of higher education law enforcement, an overview of Lawrence Kohlberg's theory of moral development, a background of adult learning principles, and a discussion of the facets of teaching police ethics.

HIGHER EDUCATION LAW ENFORCEMENT

In the higher education environment, Powell, Pander, and Nielsen (1994) assert that campus police officers are educators who should take advantage of every opportunity to model behavior that bears witness to ethical conduct and work performance. On one hand, the campus police exist to enforce rules, policies, and laws based on discretion and good judgment, tempered with compassion and understanding for people in general. On the other hand, the campus police are expected to be flexible, use sound discretion, and work collaboratively with the student judicial process and administrative expectations of the institution (Nichols, 1997). The following historical perspective of higher education law enforcement will provide the reader with an awareness of a campus police officer's work environment, thus further supporting the research topic of police ethics training.

Early Origins

The history of campus policing portrays a function that from the earliest times included the protection of persons and property from the ravages of fire, marauding Indians, thievery, and drunk and disorderly students. It is of interest to note that the earliest practitioners of campus policing were the Bedels of 15th century Oxford University. Mallet (1968) described the Bedels as "Servants appointed to execute the orders of the chancellor and the proctors. The Bedels worked for the proctors who were in charge of maintaining order. They served writs, exacted fines, and escorted misbehaved students to jail" (p. 17). Mallet (1968) mentioned that "Proctors received small payments from the fines to cover the costs of the night watch and to replace weaponry" (p. 17). Nichols (1987) described how maintaining a safe campus involved a variety of services performed by numerous individuals classified under differing job descriptions. "The night watchman, the janitor, the guard, and various levels of faculty and administration, at different eras and institutions, all performed acts similar to the responsibilities of today's campus police officer" (pp. 8-9).

In 1656, under the authority by an Act of the Massachusetts General Court, Harvard administrators and faculty were able to maintain some control over student conduct. Morison (1936) described that this act "empowered the president of Harvard and its fellows to punish all misdemeanors either by fines or hall whippings" (p. 23). Notwithstanding the delegation of authority, it was often necessary for Harvard officials to request the Governor of Massachusetts to direct the local sheriff of Middlesex to provide assistance. According to Gelber (1972) "An arrangement was also made with justices of the peace in Cambridge for a constable and six men to patrol and observe the entrance into the college hall and prevent disorder" (p. 17).

In an effort to maintain a safe and secure campus environment, the actions of university administrators and faculty are certainly commendable. Richardson (1932) identified Dartmouth College as having first used a code of criminal law, enacted in 1782, that was subsequently enforced by the president and the faculty:

> President Eleazor Wheelock's muscular frame was well adapted to kicking in the doors of locked dens of iniquity. In truth, our admiration goes out to those professors who were so successfully maintaining an extreme dignity of manner in face of the duty of acting as police officers and detectives to ferret out the crimes of nimble youth. (p. 18)

Gelber (1972) mentioned, however, that such efforts may also have been detrimental to the development of higher education law enforcement:

> The failure or inability of the faculty and administration to relinquish its prerogatives and span of control to specially trained personnel, except in cases of dire emergency, has often been construed as a delay in the evolution of higher education law enforcement. (p. 19)

The development of the campus watchmen in a policing capacity was rather sporadic and dependent upon the location of the institution. Curti (1949) mentioned the significant tasks performed by watchmen as follows, "They may have been hired to protect the buildings and grounds for certain periods of time such as in the summer and afternoons, or from noon to 10:00 p.m. on Sundays to keep objectionable women from flaunting their wares" (p. 20). Morison (1936) identified additional tasks performed by watchmen for the following reasons, "The threat of fires, night prowlers and Indians necessitated night watches. Preventing the incursions of wandering cattle, keeping the stoves lit during long winter nights, and serving as gate tenders were other responsibilities of the early watchman" (p. p. 19-20). Whereas, the watchman is the direct lineal predecessor of the campus security officer, Gelber (1972) described how related functions were also performed by the janitor:

> On many campuses, freshman students performed the early janitorial service role and were referred to as "scouts." Often the butt of humor, janitors eventually became a more acceptable function of an institution with the advent of building and grounds departments. (p. 22)

Bowen (1924) provided an 1867 description of a janitor's "Rules for Students" at Lehigh University, "The janitor is an officer of the University, specially placed by the President, in charge of the building and grounds. He is delegated to direct disorders to cease and to report damages and breaches of order to the President" (p. 23).

Some institutions depended upon protective services other than those provided by night watchmen or janitors. Institutions offering military training relied on the cadets for maintaining order. As described by Hopkins (1951):

> The commandant was especially charged with the details of policing the campus by enlisting the support of cadet officers. The cadets were expected to exact obedience from their subordinates and to report in writing any infraction of institutional rules and regulations. (p. 24)

At some campuses, private detectives were hired for special investigations involving unsolved thefts, acts of serious violence, or egregious student misconduct. The use of private detectives was often perceived as usurping the authority of the local sheriff or municipal law enforcement department and created the perception, and often reality, that colleges and universities were attempting to cover-up incidents (Neil, 1980).

Evolution of Campus Security

By the late 1800s, campus unrest and student conflicts reached epic proportions. The most significant event which became the turning point in the evolution of campus security occurred on the campus of Yale University in 1894. Similar to other institutions of that time period, Yale encompassed a large segment of the town that frequently involved conflicts between students and residents. These conflicts often escalated to violent and bloody confrontations. The worst of these mass riots occurred when the

citizens of New Haven believed that students from the Yale University Medical School were exhuming bodies from a local cemetery located near the Yale campus and using them as cadavers (Powell, Pander, & Nielsen, 1994). Gelber (1972) described the outcome of the melee as follows:

> The town-gown relations between a campus and the local law enforcement authority became strained as the use of a private detective often created a great deal of ill will and distrust. The turning point in the evolution of campus security, occurred on the campus of Yale University in 1894. In the aftermath of a riot, a town-gown ad hoc committee was formed and two New Haven police officers were hired. (p. 24)

As a result of the riot, Yale University created a police department that is widely accepted as the first campus police department in the United States. As mentioned by Yale University Police Chief William Weiser (1914), "We were assigned exclusively to the Yale campus on a volunteer basis as a means of improving student-police relations" (p. 8). Despite Yale's creation of its own campus police department, many universities continued to use the watchmen as the primary security presence on a campus as the twentieth century dawned. Eventually, these watchmen were assimilated into the physical plant on a full-time basis and actually began to patrol the campus tending to boilers, which had replaced the wood and coal furnaces, securing doors, attending to general maintenance issues, and monitoring student activity (Powell, Pander, & Nielsen, 1994). Local law enforcement agencies (municipalities/sheriffs) were relied upon to handle serious criminal offenses; while the dean of students administratively managed acts of student misconduct (Nichols, 1987).

During the early 1900s, as America continued to grow, so too did the demands upon higher education institutions. In the 1920s, student reaction to the prohibition of alcohol prompted rebellion at universities nationwide. Students attacked religion in a way that no college generation had before, adopted wild modes of dress, and flaunted sex and

liquor. Typically, the raccoon coat, the very symbol of 1920s college life, had pockets designed to hold up to six flasks of bootleg liquor (Esposito & Stormer, 1989). Gelber (1972) described this era as follows:

> The emergence of the automobile posed many problems for campus administrators, and marked the beginning of the 20th century campus security officer. The control of traffic and the problems associated with parking required the hiring of individuals to enforce newly developed laws, rules, and regulations. (p. 25)

Peckham (1967) mentioned that the University of Michigan president "viewed the automobile as another disturbance in student life, affecting, scholarship, industry, and morals" (p. 27). According to Esposito and Stormer (1989):

> In addition to the obvious concerns of traffic and parking problems, cars were also being used for joy riding which resulted in serious accidents, and students were taking the courting rituals from the front porches to the rear seats of automobiles. (p. 27)

Oregon State University administrators banned automobiles from campus because cars provided "an environment favorable to petting" (Brax, 1981, pp. 7-8).

Campus Security in Transition

Clearly, from the 1880s to the 1930s, security on campus consisted of a combination of the watchman and, to some extent, the extension of the dean of students for behavioral control of students (Nichols, 1987). Higher education's preferred method of securing the campus was to hire watchmen to protect buildings and preserve the peace (Esposito & Stormer, 1989). The creation of a police department at Yale University was an exception to the precedent of the time. According to Gelber (1972), the transition from the watchmen period occurred as follows:

> Post World War II days saw a divestment of the watchman-guard image and the development of a formal organizational police structure. Some of the vestiges of

> the past remained and uncertainty persisted as to their actual police authority, but the "campus cop" was a reality. (p. 28)

The next major change occurred upon the conclusion of World War II when many veterans began taking advantage of the G.I. Bill. This law enabled hundreds of thousands of veterans, who otherwise may not have ever had the opportunity, to attend college (Lee, 1970). This represented the first massive influx of non-traditionally aged students on to college campuses. According to Esposito and Stormer (1989), the college veterans were seasoned adults who challenged the collegiate social traditions and who required the administration to relate differently to them.

By the 1950s, the tremendous increase in student enrollment required higher education administrators to consider a more structured police presence on campuses (Powell, Pander, & Nielsen, 1994). Many colleges and universities began to hire retired police officers to be responsible for the law enforcement and service functions on campus (Sloan, 1992). Unfortunately, many of the retired police officers had no exposure to institutions of higher learning, and the campus police departments became a reflection of the agencies where the officers were previously employed (Nichols, 1987). In their fledgling state, these new campus police departments remained under the supervision of the physical plant with little or no budget specifically for police operations. Sloan (1992) asserts that the characteristics and duties of the officers remained primarily custodial, and limited to detection, apprehension, and reporting, rather than making an arrest.

The era of student dissent that began in the 1960s and continued into the 1970s included widespread student protests, building takeovers, arson, vandalism, disruptive sit-ins of university administrative offices, and riots on many of the nation's college campuses. According to Nichols (1987) student activism in the sixties was not only directed at national issues such as the Vietnam War, the draft, and civil rights, but also

specifically toward university policies and officials. Student activists brought direct confrontational tactics and the nonviolent ideology of the civil rights movement onto American campuses under the guise of the Free Speech Movement that originated at the University of California at Berkley (Cohen & Zelnik, 2002). The purpose of the activists was to create a sociological climate contrary to the democratic process of discussion, so that they might advance their own causes and affect change.

Many of the movements were predicated upon eliminating the 1913 court decision, *Gott v. Beras College*, that established the principle of *in loco parentis* meaning "in the place of parents" (Black's, 1990, p. 787). In *Gott*, the Kentucky Court of Appeals ruled that it was within the power of campus administrators to enact rules governing students in the same manner as their parents (Sims, 1971). Confrontations between students and campus administrators and the political climate of the 1960s forced the court to review *Gott*. With the movement toward individual rights supported by the courts in the 1960s, the U.S. Supreme Court reviewed the legal foundation, which allowed colleges and universities to limit constitutionally protected rights of due process (Sims, 1971).

Eventually, upon review of *Dixon v. Alabama* (1961), the U.S. Supreme Court ended the practice of *in loco parentis*. In *Dixon*, students at Alabama State College participated in a sit-in at a lunch grill. Disciplinary action was imposed and some students were suspended or expelled. The Court found that actions against the students were taken without consideration of their due process rights, and affirmed that students must be provided with procedural due process rights by institutions prior to suspension or expulsion from campus (Sims, 1971). As a result, Powell, Pander, and Nielsen (1994) maintained that the impact of *Dixon* summarily removed the school-parent role previously held by higher education institutions, eroded the control once held by campus officials over students, and ultimately fueled further campus unrest and protests. On a

national scale, the impact of *Dixon* exposed how ill prepared higher education institutions were during the period of campus civil unrest (Powell, Pander, & Nielsen, 1994).

The Contemporary Era of Campus Policing

By the end of the 1960s, many college students were using their constitutionally protected right of free speech to demonstrate and speak out on social issues of the era. According to Powell, Pander, and Nielsen (1994),

> The student-dissent era in the late 1960s and early 1970s provided campus security with its greatest impetus toward professionalization. Many campuses realized that their present security departments and their supervisors were incapable and ill equipped to manage these type of situations, or even able to provide consultation on how to prevent or prepare for them as well. (p. 6)

In the 1970s, the public safety concept, with an emphasis on emergency response, became the prevaling administrative model for higher education law enforcement. In addition to contemporary police practices, campus policing involved EMS response and fire prevention services (Nichols, 1987). Many campus police departments began to require the same level of training for recruits as required by municipal departments. This training included the completion of a police academy and in-service field-training (FTO). The quality of campus police officers was also improved as institutions implemented stringent hiring practices such as psychological testing, polygraph examinations, and complete background investigations (Nichols, 1987).

As the 1970s drew to a close, so did the era of student dissent. The focus quickly turned from campus unrest to the issue of crime on campus. Institutions were faced with increasingly serious problems such as assaults, rapes, robberies, firearms, alcohol and drug abuse, racial tension, hazing, work place violence, domestic disputes, and even murder (Neil, 1980). Campus administrators began to realize the need to minimize institutional liability by developing crime awareness and victimization programs. In an

effort to develop a positive social and physical environment that was not conducive to criminal behavior, universities also improved aspects of the campus environment such as buildings, parking lots, pathways, and lighting.

In the 1980s, an increase in crime and lawsuits continued to propel the need to further upgrade campus police departments. According to Bickel and Lake (1999), "University administrators struggled with their roles and responsibilities with respect to influencing student behavior, and recent court decisions continue to reflect a growing expectation that campuses must proactively address foreseeable risks to students" (p. 27). The work environment of campus police departments also improved as their offices were brought out of the basements and placed in modern facilities (Neil, 1980). Campus police agencies were afforded budgets that enabled them to become autonomous and less dependent upon outside law enforcement agencies. Additional funding also enabled departments to obtain the resources necessary to maintain a safe and secure environment (Sloan & Fisher, 1995). Moreover, campus administrators realized that in contrast to local municipalities, institutions of higher education had an obligation to exercise a greater level of control of both the physical and social aspects of the campus environment (Nichols, 1997).

The 1990s saw the advent of the Jeanne Clery Disclosure of Campus Security Policy and Campus Crime Statistics Act of 1990, which was enacted as a result of a female student being brutally raped and murdered at Lehigh University in 1986 (http://www.ed.gov/admins/lead/safety/campus.html). According to Powell, Pander, and Nielsen (1994), this legislation has served as the foundation for the contemporary era of higher education law enforcement. As one university president put it, "I feel responsible for the safety and well-being of my university, and the people who study, work and reside here" (Powell, Pander, & Nielsen, p. 8). The courts also began to hold institutions of

higher education liable if they failed to perform actions that a prudent person would perform (Smith, 1989).

Campus policing has emerged from night watchmen, who may have doubled as janitors in university facilities, through the transition of building maintenance departments, into full- service police agencies staffed with professionally trained officers. Since the 19th century, university communities, like municipalities, have become larger and more diverse. The complexities associated with working in higher education law enforcement now require comprehensive training to equip officers with the ability to handle the varied and unique situations associated with the campus environment. Therefore, higher education law enforcement has evolved from being a necessary evil to being an essential function critical to the mission of higher education.

MORAL EDUCATION

Moral education is becoming an increasingly popular topic in the fields of psychology and education. Media reports of increased violent juvenile crime, teen pregnancy, and suicide have caused many to declare a moral crisis in our nation. While not all of social concerns are moral in nature, systematic research and scholarship on moral development suggests there is a growing trend towards linking the solutions to these social problems to the teaching of moral and social values. The challenge remains how to develop practical definitions of moral development and assimilate them into educational practice.

Currently, at least five approaches to moral education can be identified: 1) Values Clarification (Damon, 1990), 2) Kohlberg-based Cognitive Moral Development (Kohlberg, 1981), 3) Character Education (Bennett, 1997), 4) Values Analysis (Irwin,

1988), and 5) Values Stimulation (Veugelers, 2000). The various assumptions, goals, and methods of these approaches are described as follows:

- Values Clarification attempts to create an environment in which students may critically explore their own values and then discover or construct a personally meaningful moral system. The instructor must remain non-judgmental, ask probing questions but never reveal personal beliefs or push students too hard (Damon, 1990). Group discussions provide a level of accountability on personal relativism, as other students mentally test the limits of the value stances voiced by individuals.
- Kohlberg's Moral Development Theory is the basis for the vast majority of experimental research in the field of moral education. Kohlberg maps a six-stage sequential process of developing morality. Each level represents a fundamental shift in the social-moral perspective of the individual. The goal of education based upon Kohlberg's moral education theory is to encourage individuals to develop to the next stage of moral reasoning. Initial educational efforts employing Kohlberg's theory were grounded in basic Piagetian assumptions of cognitive development (Piaget, 1983). Development, in this model, is not merely the result of gaining more knowledge, but rather consists of a sequence of qualitative changes in the way an individual thinks. Within any stage of development, thought is organized according to the constraints of that stage. An individual then interacts with the environment according to a basic understanding of the environment (Power, Higgins, & Kohlberg, 1985).
- Character Education programs focus on orienting the student to civil modes of conduct. Former U.S. Secretary of Education William Bennett advocates

character education. Bennett (1997) maintains that being honest, hardworking, obedient to legitimate authority, kind, patriotic and responsible are not optional for children or adults, and that this message should be explicit, pervasive, and reinforced by rewards and punishments. Children are seen as not possessing a natural tendency towards morality. They must be taught by lesson and example to behave in a manner appropriate to their host society.

- Values Analysis is a partial reworking of values clarification but in a more formal and directed manner. Students are organized into debate-style teams and then develop rational arguments for and against various ethical positions. Costs and benefits are carefully analyzed while attempting to view the problem from multiple perspectives before making a learned decision (Irwin, 1988).
- Values Stimulation (Veugelers, 2000) like character education is not value neutral. It is a theory based on the belief that values are always present, whether explicit or not. Similar to values analysis, the instructor initiates class discussions and activities that question various ethical perspectives. Student expressions are respected but questioned, and values are perceived, interpreted, and constructed based on personal experiences.

The field of moral education is rife with disputes about the nature of moral development or character formation. Clearly, arguments surrounding the purpose of moral education capture the essential quandary for any pluralist democracy attempting to construct a shared civil society without privileging the particular values of any one group. The significant aspect of this dilemma is whether an overlapping consensus about moral education approaches can be developed that would be appealing irrespective of local or particularistic values.

Kohlberg's Theory

Fair and Pilcher (1991) assert that societal influences are important in the development of an individual's sense of right and wrong and serve to offset the arrogance of the individual mind. In the context of Lawrence Kohlberg's theory, determining right and wrong is a moral development process that occurs throughout one's life (Crain, 1985). Van Wagner (2006) contended that Kohlberg was interested in how people would act if they were faced with a moral dilemma. Devries and Zan (1994) indicated that Kohlberg followed the development of moral judgment beyond the ages studied by Piaget and determined that the process of attaining moral maturity took longer and was more gradual than Piaget had proposed. According to Crain (2004), Kohlberg's theory is based upon three levels of constructive development: the pre-conventional, conventional, and post-conventional, with each stage serving as the model of moral development. The moral development process involves the externalization of innate moral modules, connects with a particular set of socially constructed virtues, and occurs through the two stages within each level (Kohlberg, 1981). The pre-conventional level involves an individual's perspective whereby a person's choices are based on the fear of punishment and the desire for rewards. The conventional level consists of personal choices based upon the consideration of others, the maintenance of positive relations, and the rules of society. The post-conventional level involves a perspective in which abstract ideals take precedence over particular societal laws. These stages are critical as they consider the way people organize an understanding of virtues, rules, and norms, and integrate these into a moral choice (Power, Higgins, & Kohlberg, 1989). Table 1 provides an overview of Kohlberg's moral development stages.

Table 1: Moral Development – Kohlberg's Theory

Levels	Stages	
1. Pre-conventional	1. Obedience and punishment orientation.	2. Self-interest orientation (what's in it for me?)
2. Conventional	3. Interpersonal accord and conformity (the good boy, good girl attitude).	4. Authority and social-order maintaining orientation (law and order morality).
3. Post-conventional	5. Social contract orientation.	6. Universal ethical principles (principled conscience).

Furthermore, Kohlberg believed that individuals could only progress through one stage at a time, and only mature to a comprehension of a moral rationale one stage above their own (Crain, 1985). Thus, for Kohlberg it was important to present individuals with moral dilemmas, using stories, to prompt discussions which would help participants see the reasonableness of a higher stage of morality and encourage their development in that direction. Through discussions, students would then face the contradictions present in any course of action not based on principles of justice or fairness (Kohlberg, Levine, & Hewer, 1983). Similarly, case studies (actual or hypothetical stories of ethical dilemmas experienced by law enforcement personnel – most commonly referred to as "war stories"), were identified as a mode of teaching police ethics to officers in higher education law enforcement (Pollock & Becker, 1995).

Critics of Kohlberg's theory contend that it emphasizes justice to the exclusion of other values, and it may not adequately address the arguments of people who value other moral actions. For example, Gilligan (1977) argued that because Kohlberg used only

male participants, the empirical research does not adequately describe the concerns of women. Gilligan (1982) suggests that by listening to women's experiences, a morality of care can serve in the place of the morality of justice and rights as espoused by Kohlberg. According to Gilligan (1982), the morality of caring and responsibility is premised by non-violence, while the morality of justice and rights is based on equality. Gilligan's work has contributed to an increased awareness that care is an integral component of moral reasoning.

Another critique of Kohlberg's theory is the distinctive claim of social intuitionism. As described by Haidt (2001) "moral reasoning does not cause moral judgment; rather, moral reasoning is usually a post hoc construction, generated after a judgment has been reached" (p. 814), and that moral intuitions drive moral reasoning "just as surely as a dog wags its tail" (p. 830). Furthermore, Haidt (2001) indicated that with the notable exception of professional philosophers who have been "extensively trained and socialized to follow reasoning even to very disturbing conclusions" (p. 829), conscious deliberation plays little role in determining our moral judgments. As expressed by Pizzaro and Bloom (2003), the social intuitionist model posits that fast and automatic intuitions are the primary source of moral judgments:

> To use Haidt's metaphor, when we reason about moral issues, we are not like judges, considering the evidence and arguments in an objective search for the truth - we are like lawyers, trying to make a persuasive case for a pre-established point of view. (p. 194)

Arguably, the position held by Kohlberg is considered to be post hoc rationalization of intuitive decisions as indicated by Haidt (2001). This would mean that moral reasoning is less relevant to moral action than Kohlberg's theory suggests. Yet, with all its possible flaws, Kohlberg's theory of moral development was the first of its kind and remains the springboard for all subsequent research into moral reasoning. Critiques of Kohlberg's

theory have continued to lead to a more expansive and inclusive understanding of the development of moral reasoning.

Based upon Kohlberg's moral development theory, most adults are at level two and stage four and do not get above that. Likewise, the ethics training provided to adult police officers would typically occur at level two (conventional) stage four (law and order morality). Because of this, optimum performance requires that police officers believe that the method of instruction has some immediate application that acts as a catalyst for acquiring needed job knowledge and skills and not in the fashion as described by Gilmartin and Harris (1998):

> For many officers, ethics training is seen as nothing more than a politically driven, knee jerk reaction to the media attention that surrounds high profile cases. While the training is necessary, its importance becomes diluted or rendered ineffective by the manner in which it is presented. (p. 6)

Clearly, most values education models are connected to theories of ethics/morality with the emphasis being on the process of moral reasoning and not on specific content. In Kohlberg's theory, a highly moral person is one who makes decisions based on universal principles of justice/rightness. Thus, the direction of society is influenced by the personal decisions and actions of individuals.

PRINCIPLES OF ADULT LEARNING

The adult learning process takes place in a variety of settings and contexts such as higher education, adult literacy programs, continuing professional education, and workplace education. Such contexts are referred to as environments for formal adult learning. According to Kennedy (2003):

> The field of adult education has been emerging steadily as a discrete field of social practice in the United States since the founding of the American Association for Adult Education in 1926. Since that time, research has produced many new concepts about the learning processes of adults and the motives that

> direct and influence an adult's ability to acquire new knowledge and skills. Recognition and application of these concepts are the key to more effective law enforcement training programs. (p. 1)

The challenge to law enforcement administrators and instructors is to proactively reexamine current teaching practices and develop ways to incorporate adult learning principles, strategies, and methodologies into training programs. The benefits of such an approach include the enhancement of the learning experience through effective training programs. The value of creating an optimum classroom environment supports the goal of developing quality police officers, thus improving service to the public.

This researcher sought information about whether law enforcement instruction used methods that included adult learning principles. The literature review provided several perspectives regarding this issue. For example, the International Association of Chief of Police Ad Hoc Committee on Police Image and Ethics described the significance of adult learning as follows:

> Any attempt to incorporate training within the law enforcement community must be carried out within the framework of an adult learning environment. Too often in the past, ethics training programs have consisted of little more than a lecture or sermon presented in a threatening and offensive tone. In such cases, it is little wonder that officers walk out of the classroom feeling they have, for all intents and purposes, wasted their time. The training of police personnel is most effective when the instructors concerned create a training style and environment that lends itself to the learning of adults. In particular, employees must fully appreciate how they will benefit from ethics training. (IACP - Ad Hoc, 1997, p. 8)

Likewise, regarding law enforcement academy training, Jones, Owens, and Smith (1995) illustrate the significance of the adult learning process as follows:

> Training police recruits is a vital component in establishing ethical policing. Police professionalism requires that recruits develop a fundamental understanding of ethical principles during their basic police academy experience. In fact, ethics training is so basic to police professionalism that, by necessity, it should be the first subject introduced to recruits at the academy. (p. 24)

Kirshner and Whitson (1997) indicated that situated learning is essentially a matter of creating meaning from the real activities of daily living, and that the knowledge and skills learned in that context reflect the way knowledge is applied to everyday situations. Kennedy (2003) stated that a hallmark of the adult education philosophy is to include learners in the planning and implementation of their learning activities:

> Where possible, educators should base new learning on the previous experience of the learner. This will facilitate faster and more effective learning. Instructors should use teaching techniques, such as group discussions, symposiums, debates, demonstrations, role-plays, and group projects, where learners have an opportunity to draw upon their previous experiences and to share them in cooperative interaction with others. (p. 4)

Being an effective instructor also involves understanding the elements of the adult learning process such as participation, rapport, application, and motivation. Lieb (1991) contended that compared to children and teens, adults have special needs and requirements as learners. He identified four critical elements of learning that must be addressed to ensure that participants learn. These elements are:

- Motivation – establish rapport and prepare participants to learn.
- Reinforcement – encourage correct modes of behavior and performance.
- Retention – emphasize meaning and application of the information being taught.
- Transference – associate the new information with something already known. (pp. 2-3)

The field of adult learning was pioneered by Malcolm Knowles (1984), who advocated the principles of andragogy. Knowles (1980) used the term andragogy instead of pedagogy to clarify differences between meeting the learning needs of adults and meeting those of children, respectively. Andragogy emphasizes that adults are self-directed and should expect to take responsibility for decisions, and that instructors should

adopt the role of a facilitator or resource rather than a lecturer or grader. Knowles' (1984) principles of andragogy promote the design of the adult learning process as follows:

- Adults need to know why they need to learn something.
- Adults need to learn experientially.
- Adults approach learning as problem solving.
- Adults learn best when the topic is of immediate value. (pp. 14-21)

In practical terms, andragogy means that instruction for adults needs to focus more on the process and less on the content being taught. Knowles (1980) indicated that andragogical and pedagogical principles used are to be determined by the situation and not the age of the learner because pedagogy is not always appropriate for teaching. He identified the need for adults to be motivated to learn, to be active in the learning process, and to have their past experiences respected and valued in the learning environment. Thus, the distinction between andragogy (how adults learn) differs from pedagogy (how children learn) in that pedagogy does not address prior experiences. Strategies such as case studies, role-playing, simulations, and self-evaluation are most useful (Knowles, 1984). Specific to law enforcement ethics training, Metz (1986) asserted that the following elements compliment the approach to the adult learning process:

- A review of job related decisions involving ethical situations.
- A consensus regarding jurisdictional issues and departmental values.
- Role-playing among officers involving ethical circumstances.
- A discussion of the significant "reality shocks" that affect officers in the field.
- An analysis of factors which may affect an officer's ethical values. (p. 74)

Adult Learning Modes

Sherman (1978) provides this perspective regarding modes of teaching for adult learners,

> The teaching of ethics is amenable to many different methods: lectures, case studies, small group discussions, student presentations of their own topics, lectures by outside professionals, in-depth study of a few selected issues, panels of opposing viewpoints, student reports of interviews of professionals, films, audio and video tapes, slides and transparencies, lecture by academics from other departments, role playing, simulation games, novels, plays, clippings, and photographs. While using all of these methods in a one-term course would probably exhaust the student and instructor, there is much to be said for using a variety of techniques. (p. 52)

Pollock and Becker (1995) advocated the role-playing approach and recommend the use of student-generated dilemmas as a teaching tool:

> In this article we discuss an approach to teaching ethics to a criminal justice audience, which allows class participants to submit their own ethical dilemmas and analyze these dilemmas using a philosophical framework. The approach is based on the assumption that students will submit dilemmas which are relevant to them. (p. 3)

Massey (1993) rejected the learning ethics by observation approach of role playing interaction and maintained the following:

> One of the problems of role-playing, or the "sitting with the Nellie" approach as it is sometimes referred to, is that students are merely trained rather than educated. It can be argued that the hallmark of education, as distinct from training, is that it promotes understanding rather than merely the ability to master a range of skills and techniques. (p. 80)

Sherman (1999) also advocated a stand-alone police ethics course within the basic police academy "designed specifically for the ethical and moral issues of police service" (p. 21). Aspects of the learning process (participation, rapport, application, motivation) often surface in discussions of knowledge development. For example, Rapkin (1994) advocated a similar perspective concerning the delivery of teaching police ethics:

> Educators have acknowledged that we need to help our students recognize ethical issues, and we need to give them the skills to think and talk about these issues. What goes on in the classroom should be a rehearsal for the boardroom, for committee meetings, for faculty meetings, for staff meetings - in short, for the real world. Across the curriculum, faculty should not be missing the opportunities to increase student awareness of this important aspect of all academic disciplines and should be challenging students to think about it. (p. 16)

Effective Teaching Practices

The importance of teaching police ethics can be aptly described by the International Association of Chiefs of Police Ad Hoc Committee on Police Image and Ethics which maintains:

> As with other training topics, ethics training is most effective when it is focused upon the specific needs of those being trained. The development and use of customized ethics training tools, techniques, processes and programs should provide personnel with more skills, knowledge and abilities for preventing unethical acts. (IACP, 1997, p. 8)

As discussed in Chapter 1, this researcher identified specific modes to teach police ethics that include case study, role-playing, lecture, training videos, and texts/publications. The primary purpose of this study was to examine differing perspectives about their usefulness given that the literature review yielded very little consensus regarding the best practice to teach police ethics. The researcher gleaned the following perspectives from the literature. Braswell, McCarthy, and McCarthy (1998) advocated the use of the war story, or case study, as a primary mode of teaching police ethics:

> The war story still remains the most effective device for communicating the history and values of the department. When the instructor tells a “war story” or an anecdote about police work, the class discipline is relaxed somewhat, the interest and attention of the class increase, and an atmosphere of camaraderie between the class and the instructor is established. The content of the story makes a deep impression on the trainee. (p. 101)

The literature review provided some consensus that police ethics training should occur while preparing individuals for a career in law enforcement as well as after they

have entered the field. In the following statement, Pollock and Becker (1995) discussed where and when ethics training should take place:

> One issue concerns the place where such teaching should be conducted. It is recognized increasingly that both the college classroom and the law enforcement academy are important locales for instruction in ethics. Another question is whether ethics teaching is properly placed in an academy recruit class or as a part of in-service training. Again, it is probably true that a focused, guided discussion of ethical issues is needed at both of those points in a law enforcement career. (p. 1)

Metz (1986) suggested that the subject of police ethics be expanded and taught periodically at the management level as well:

> In order to challenge the contemporary officer's thinking about moral values and ethical conduct, the police profession needs to incorporate law enforcement ethics directly into the training provided all personnel. Such training should begin at the recruit school and continue through the short-term seminars to management programs and courses. (p. 76)

Wilbert McKeachie advocated a practical approach to teach adult learners. He believed that students learn effectively when instructors are as prepared as possible. McKeachie (2005) stated that the cooperative learning experience should include the promotion of problem-based experiential learning such as case studies, and learning activities that frame the context of the course and develop a teaching narrative that ensures shared meaning. McKeachie (2005) was a strong proponent of placing the responsibility of student learning upon the instructor; "We need to look at what we are doing that might be related to the student's behavior. The ultimate test of our teaching is evidence of learning. Blaming the student is not an acceptable approach" (p. 323). McKeachie (2005) emphasized the need for instructors to listen and to treat students with respect, "The lecturer's task in university teaching is not to be an abstractor of encyclopedias, but to teach students to learn and think" (p. 55). Regarding the lecture mode of instruction, a topic of this study, McKeachie (2005) asserted that the adult

learning process should include class lectures and then assess the effectiveness of instruction through testing and evaluations. As a primary research mode associated with this study, McKeachie (2005) also advocated the use of dilemma-related case studies that would frame an officers' understanding of ethical principles. Likewise, Braswell, McCarthy, and McCarthy (1998) indicated that the case study encourages officers to discuss and evaluate circumstances that are likely to be encountered while on the job:

> The war stories not only introduce police work as it is experienced by police officer, rather than an abstract ideal, they also introduce the ethics of police work as something different from what the public, or at least the law and the press, might expect. (p. 101)

According to Smith and Waller (1997), cooperative learning can maximize the adult learning process when studying conceptually complex and content-dense information that will compel students not to be passive while learning. Smith and Waller (1997) contended that the integration of cooperative interaction into classes should help adult learners dig below the superficial level of understanding the class curriculum, require students to explain what they learned, effectively express their point of view, and give and receive support from classmates.

This literature review has provided diverse perspectives concerning principles and elements of adult learning. Understanding the preferred modes to teach police ethics remains a significant factor in promoting a positive and meaningful learning process for police officers. The literature suggests that higher education law enforcement administrators and instructors should reexamine current modes of instruction for teaching police ethics and include practices that incorporate adult learning principles. For example, the literature recommends that instructional methods should emphasize techniques that are problem or situation centered, and officers must believe that the learning activity is relevant and can act as a catalyst for acquiring needed job knowledge

and skills. The following discussion focuses on facets of teaching police ethics including why teach ethics, who should teach ethics, and what should be taught.

WHY TEACH ETHICS?

In American society, the power and authority granted to the police are unique among all other institutions of government or other professions. As representatives of government, the very nature of police work requires officers to use discretion, make sound decisions, and act fairly and equitably (Bittner, 1991). As policing becomes more decentralized and community-based in structure, accountability to the public becomes a highly relevant issue that affects delivery of police services (Crank & Caldero, 2000). According to Punch (1985), the frequent basis of controversy within the law enforcement profession are issues related to behavior associated with how police fulfill their duties and exercise discretion. As observed by Lagrange (1998):

> The police find themselves in an awkward bind. On the one hand, the very nature of their work places them right in the middle of complex human problems, problems that defy simple solutions. The police are expected to be more than regulatory robots when handling human dilemmas; we expect them to use their professional knowledge and sound judgment to resolve dilemmas in the best way possible. On the other hand, the police are expected to be full and equal enforcers of the law, to apply the law as written, and to shun arbitrary police behavior. (p. 178)

Regarding the importance of teaching, Cohen (1983) stated:

> Police ethics training is a department's chance to establish the difference between legal behavior and ethical behavior, and to stress the importance of ethical behavior. In addition, it provides a vehicle to ensure that all police employees are fully versed in department policies regarding ethics-related topics, ranging from accepting gratuities to falsifying documents. Moreover, ethics training allows employees to understand the reasons behind these policies and the dangers of engaging in unethical behavior. (p. 236)

As indicated by Trautman and Prevost (2005), ethics is law enforcement's greatest training need for several reasons, "Most law enforcement agencies neglect to conduct

annual internal ethics training and some have never presented such instruction although nothing is more devastating to both individual departments and the entire profession than scandals" (p. 1).

In an effort to determine why ethics should be taught, the literature review yielded several thoughts regarding the relationship between ethics training and its impact upon officers. As described by Vicchio (1997):

> My initial sense is that the more extensive the training, the clearer the effect will be, though the social scientific evidence on the relationship of academic ethics training and moral behavior, at least at this point, is ambiguous. One element about academy ethics training is clear, if it is to be effective, it needs to be rigorous and it needs to emphasize critical thinking skills, reasoning skills, and problem-solving techniques. In short, ethics training needs to be the right blend of the theoretical and the practical. (p.12)

Furthermore, Trautman and Prevost (2005) indicated that the lack of ethics training might possibly result in such devastating consequences as civil suits that involve substantial settlements or judgments, the erosion of community trust, police departments and family members that face public humiliation, and officers who commit suicide believing they have lost their careers and cannot face their loved ones because of misconduct. The importance of teaching police ethics is interesting given that the concept of training assumes that the person being trained can actually be taught the subject matter. As suggested by the literature, the term ethics training seems to imply that ethics can somehow be taught to police officers. Byers (2002), however, preferred the term ethics "awareness" training for the following reason:

> The reason is elementary. Is it possible to teach someone to be ethical as 'ethics training' might suggest? This seems far-fetched, at best. If a department has an officer who has a propensity toward unethical behavior, and this person was not weeded out during the hiring process, the best one might hope for is a heightened awareness and sensitivity for ethical issues and dilemmas. (p. 8)

A distinct but related topic is whether higher education influences the ethical behavior of police officers. According to Lee (1986):

> Advanced formal education enhances the maturity and professionalism of police officers. The question is whether those positive attributes spill over into the ethical arena. Some research suggests a positive relationship. Advanced formal education appears to reinforce previously established ethical values in individuals. At the organizational level, one study identified a commitment to learning as one of the three most prominent characteristics common to highly ethical organizations. (p. 30)

Interestingly, many departments place little importance on education and training as a predictor of behavior. Yet, in an effort to maintain the organizational integrity of a police department, Braunstein and Tyre (1992) contended, "To present ethics only in its own block is to wall it off and suggest that it is separate from practice. Effective integration; however, requires that all appropriate instructors be expected to accomplish this" (p. 31).

Further review of the literature also raised the issue regarding the value of what police officers are taught. Many ethical issues are clear-cut and hold little room for serious philosophical analysis. For example, one would have difficulty defending police officers that steal. There remains, however, a gray area commonly found in the police culture pertaining to other ethical situations such as, accepting a gratuity from a student that an officer has transported to their residence hall. Thus, contrary to many of a department's official rules, the black-and-white approach to ethics may be somewhat naïve. Sherman (1999) raised an interesting argument in this regard:

> What may be wrong with the way police ethics is now taught and learned is just that assumption: that all police ethical issues are as clear cut as stealing. They are not. The issues of force, time, discretion, loyalty, and others are all very complex, with many shades of gray. To deny this complexity, as the formal approaches of police academies and police rule books often do, may simply encourage unethical behavior. A list of "do's" and "don'ts" that officers must follow because they are ordered to is a virtual challenge to their ingenuity: catch me if you can. (p. 310)

In terms of preventative measures, according to Cooksey (1991):

> Ethics training provides the best and most powerful tool for making a corruption prevention strategy work. Ethics training conducted in an integrated and realistic manner is an effective deterrent to corruption for two reasons. First, ethics training publicizes agency policy. Second, ethics training allows officers the opportunity to interact and request clarification of standards of conduct in terms of specific actions commonly encountered in police work. (p. 7)

While a gap exists in the literature concerning the optimum modes of instruction for teaching police ethics, the literature does suggest a need to determine how the ethics education component occurs. Some writers have expressed a concern for what appears to be an absence of the subject of ethics in law enforcement training programs and in criminal justice college curriculums. For example, Sherman (1974) stated:

> Higher education programs in criminology and criminal justice have largely neglected the systematic study of ethics. Although this lacuna is typical of higher education in general, it is no longer true of professional education curricula in business, law, medicine, and other fields, that have been forced by external events and internal conflicts to reexamine their ethical standards. Whether or not one conceives of criminal justice as a field of professional education, there are ample reasons for the study of ethics to become a central part of criminal justice and criminology curricula at all levels and in all models of higher educational programs in this area. (p. 7)

According to Hyams (1991), the police academy is often the first and only time that officers are exposed to ethics training. The underlying implication in Dees' (1996) analysis was that a change in the way police organizations educate and train is in order:

> Ethics training is gaining ground in law enforcement education curriculums, but it needs to move faster and better. Officers need to understand that there is a reward, not a penalty, for doing the right thing and living up to the stated traditions of policing. (p. 60)

Pollack and Becker (1995) added:

> The goals of police training typically include all aspects of performance related to the job. Recently, other elements have been introduced, such as communication skills, multicultural understanding, child abuse, and the "battered woman" syndrome. The training schedule, however, does not include the role of the police in a free society of due process, or ethical issues involved in the investigation and enforcement. (p. 1)

Trautman and Prevost (2005) do acknowledge that there has been an emphasis on police ethics training after the International Association of Chief's of Police (IACP) established its first Ad Hoc Ethics Training committee in 1995:

> Now, a decade later, the need is just as great, there are thousands of trainers and consultants presenting a multitude of instruction variations. The major difference between then and now lies in new research and our improved understanding about how to conduct ethics training. (National Institute of Ethics, June 2005)

The importance of police ethics training is further supported by the IACP Ethics Training in Law Enforcement report which indicated the following:

> One major finding was that the amount of time devoted to ethics training did not appear to be consistent with how important the needs were, based on the responses. There seems to be a recognized demand for expanded training hours, more quality training resources and greater involvement with ethics training at all levels of the organization, but the number of hours remains rather insignificant in terms of this recognized demand. It is possible that the gap revealed in this survey between "high need" and training hours devoted to ethics actually reflects changes that are occurring, and there is simply a resource lag while the gap closes. (IACP Ad Hoc Committee, 1997)

The literature cited confirms that a gap exists regarding the value of ethics training and the optimum approach to teach police ethics.

WHO SHOULD TEACH ETHICS?

The literature related to police ethics training concludes that there are three prevailing models regarding who should teach police ethics (Cohen, 1983). The first model suggests that ethics instructors should be academicians who maintain a strong background in ethical and moral philosophy and are generally familiar with the practice of policing (Souryal, 1998). The second model suggests that ethics instructors should be savvy officers who have experienced and have endured the ethical and moral dimensions of police work (Crank & Caldero, 2000). The third model recommends a team-teaching approach that uses both informed academicians (moral and ethical philosophy

background) and experienced practitioners (street-wise officers) (Crank & Caldero, 2000).

According to Crank and Caldero (2000), the second model of exclusively utilizing instructors from law enforcement agencies appears to be the most recommended way for teaching police ethics, “These instructors have a powerful impact on departments for two reasons: 1) they tend to teach large introductory classes and their views can influence many students, and 2) they are often admired by students as role models.” (p. 137) Moreover, Crank and Caldero (2000) also discuss the negativity associated with having faculty teach police ethics:

> Criminal justice departments are frequently presented with an anomalous instructional environment. The full-time faculty has often been drawn from educational fields that provide a critical overview of criminal justice institutions and agencies. Faculty who are openly critical of criminal justice risk alienating their students and consequently risk negative student evaluations. (p.137)

Likewise, Cohen (1983) commented about the importance of an instructor’s credibility:

> Police are typically wary of opinions of anyone outside the profession, particularly journalists and academics. They expect to be judged unsympathetically by members of those groups, and consequently come to a course on police ethics with great caution. (p. 237)

With regard to instructor preference, Robinette (1991) stated “The context and atmosphere of the training session is important to success. It is best conducted by an outsider who can obtain the group’s trust and support in the examination of past practices" (p. 47). Sherman (1974) discussed the importance of this issue as it applies to academic programs in criminal justice, “The most critical teaching issue for ethics in criminal justice is the virtual absence of people qualified to do it. Many criminal justice professors may feel qualified to teach ethics, but they are probably mistaken” (p. 49). Although Sherman’s comments focused on the academic setting, the relevancy relates to the level of competency of those who teach ethics in police academies and in-service

training programs, as well as the content of the curriculum. Pollock (1993) recognized the concern of qualified ethics instructors but was less pessimistic than Sherman (1999) concerning criminal justice faculty:

> One reason for hesitating to offer a criminal justice ethics course may be that criminal justice faculty members typically are not trained in philosophy and cannot offer the appropriate expertise in ethical analysis. Of course, this is a generalization; some outstanding exceptions exist. (p. 373)

Although not explicitly stated, Pollack's comment suggested that criminal justice academicians may not be the appropriate ethics instructors for police practitioners.

In the analysis of an ethics course taught at Boston University, Cohen (1983) describes the pedagogical implications regarding the qualifications of ethics instructors:

> There is little doubt that bringing together theoretical knowledge and practical experience are valuable for the instructors. The question for the approach is whether the instructors must bridge theory and practice in order to offer an adequate course. This question must be answered on two levels. On a pragmatic level the question is: can an instructor without practical experience be credible to the participants? There are two issues here: understanding and empathy. Some advocates of the view that instructors must be steeped in both theory and experience argue that the combination is necessary in order to understand the moral problems police face sufficiently to formulate them accurately. Without experience, the very expression of the problem will miss the mark. The second concern is that the depth and subtlety of the police officers' moral conflicts will not be fully appreciated by anyone who has not experienced them. Police, on this view, because of their authority to use force and their regular exposure to danger, live in a moral world apart. Without a taste of that world the outsider is inclined to minimize the moral conflicts and pronounce judgments which do not properly acknowledge the magnitude of the moral dimension of police work. (p. 237)

As he continued his analysis of instructor qualifications, Cohen (1983) indicated that it may not be possible to develop a distinction between theory and experience:

> At its worst, this distinction is the basis of a view of "applied ethics" which makes philosophers roving moral experts looking for groups of people with moral problems to resolve. This criticism of instructors without experience argues that a course beginning from a division of theory and practice will treat practice as little more than grist for the theoretical mills. A second, more sophisticated, version of this criticism is that it tends to treat the experience of practitioners as "raw" and the theories of the instructor as "timeless." (p. 237)

Interestingly, Cohen (1983) rejected both arguments about who is qualified to teach police ethics and stated, "Needless to say, I believe neither the pragmatic nor the theoretical criticisms, and that it is quite possible for instructors who have not had police experience to give a thoroughly adequate course in ethics for police" (p. 237). The central theme of Cohen's (1983) analysis may be found in his statement, "The thesis I plan to develop here is that the instructor's own experience should, at best, be a minimal part of a police ethics course, and is not crucial for teaching one well" (p. 237). Redlinger (1993) mentioned that providing quality service and protection to the public requires police to remain faithful to the rule of law and exemplify the highest ethics of public service, and that those responsible for providing police ethics training should make a strong commitment to nurture the adult learning process.

WHAT SHOULD BE TAUGHT?

Just as relevant to the purpose of teaching police ethics, is the content of what is taught. Crank and Caldero (2000) indicated that because police officers use some value or moral basis to decide how to act, ethics training enables them to think about why they make the decisions they do:

> Ethics training, to be useful, has to be about more than lofty, academic thinking about why we act the way we do. Ethics training has to be practical, that is, be useful in the kind of decisions we make in our daily routines. When confronted with a routine situation, an officer has to decide the right way to act and avoid doing the wrong thing. A practical ethical standard is the standard we bring to bear when deciding what is right and what is wrong. (p. 8)

Massey (1993) contended that it is insufficient to train officers in what a good decision may be. He suggested that teaching ethical theory is essential to the process of ethics training "We must teach them the theoretical basis of sound decision making so that they may independently be able to reason through a particular situation and reach a

moral or ethical decision" (p. 80). Fair and Pilcher (1991) added that students should be instructed in classical ethical theories such as egoism, utilitarianism, natural law, and the writings of Kant. They argued that the objective was to provide students with the ability to reason and explain their decisions rather than to adhere to a code of conduct: "The emphasis in our view, then, is not on any specific result, but on the use of the process" (p. 38). Other writers reject an academic or theoretical approach and insist that ethics instruction be closely related to what the student police officer will someday experience. Pollack (1993) contended that instructors should concentrate not on theory but on application of ethical principles to situations the officer is likely to encounter on a frequent basis:

> In ethics courses in the college classroom or law school, there is time to analyze ethical systems and provide in-depth background in moral analysis. In the training academy or in-service course, there is a need to cover quite a few issues in a short period of time. It is probably quite best to limit philosophical analysis to the extent that there is material to adequately address other issues. (p. 45)

Donahue (1992) and Davis (1991) are two writers who advocated the use of a code of conduct to teach police ethics. Davis (1991) viewed a code of ethics as being an instructive aspect of the police culture "A code of ethics can help prevent undesirable behavior only if police think of themselves as professionals in the morally interesting sense" (p. 25). Davis (1991) added that a well-developed code of ethics provides officers with a moral support system:

> The teaching of police ethics probably needs to be changed accordingly. Right now the emphasis seems to be on the individual police officer doing his duty and keeping his nose clean. Little, if anything, is said about an officer's responsibility for helping fellow officers do the right thing. Yet, in police work, as in other professions, moral support is an important part of maintaining standards. (p. 26)

Donahue (1992) also advocated the formulation of an applicable code of ethics that promotes ethical behavior through the bureaucratic influence of the department:

> Those who have attempted to contribute to this analysis (for example, Ellison & Feldburg, 1985; Pollock-Byrne, 1988) have taken the tack that ethical behavior can be taught. Aside from whether teaching virtue to adults is possible, a problem recognized by Plato in the Meno and The Republic, this approach ignores bureaucracy's potent influence on employee behavior and ethos. And because police institutions are, above all else, bureaucracies, this oversight in the literature must be addressed. (pp. 48-49)

Donahue (1992) also mentioned that the absence of a code of conduct is at the heart of the ethics crisis in policing:

> Much of the problem in the current literature, it seems, lies in the failure to explicitly recognize the absence of an efficacious code of ethics for police officers. This absence is a direct consequence of the social and political reality of policing as bureaucracy, as Habermas (1970) would say, an unreconstructed purposive-rational institution. It is in this connection that an organization-behavior orientation can contribute to understanding why a crisis in police ethics exists and what solutions seem plausible. (p. 49)

Yet, Souryal (1998) contended that a law enforcement code of ethics, or other mechanisms that may seek to professionalize the police are inadequate, and the goal of police ethics training or education should be to provide students with an awareness of ethical issues:

> In the context of criminal justice ethics, enabling competence does not (and cannot) spring simply from codes of conduct or pleas for professionalism. Those are only tools that define or prohibit conduct without arousing philosophical curiosity; indeed they inspire obedience, but not understanding. It is more desirable, we believe, to help students achieve an ethical awareness from which all ethical conduct might flow. (p. 19)

SUMMARY

This literature review has suggested the need for research regarding police ethics training, how such training should be taught, and the importance of adult learning principles. The paucity of data has suggested that the issue of police ethics training is an emerging subject in the field of law enforcement training. Compared to other problems

and concerns associated with police training (e.g. use of force, arrest search and seizure, firearms training, etc.), the concept of ethics training is regarded as a secondary priority.

This literature review has also suggested that ethics is a subject of growing concern within the law enforcement profession. The law enforcement profession has apparently not defined the parameters of ethical behavior or subscribed to the characteristics of ethical policing beyond existing codes of conduct. It would also appear that the primary motivation for such a lack of concern about ethics is predicated upon minimizing civil liability, monitoring police behavior, and enhancing public relations. Still, there are those who remain committed to implementing police ethics training in an effort to improve the level of professionalism, to maintain the public's trust, and to avoid a crisis involving unethical practices.

The philosophical and practical understanding of what constitutes police ethics is an important component to this study. The literature, however, was not particularly illuminating on the subject, and few definitive explanations or meaningful insights were found. While a lack of consensus existed among scholars, educators, and law enforcement administrators concerning what constitutes unethical behavior or how to define police ethics, identifying the modes to teach police ethics remains a point of emphasis regarding the adult learning process. The perspectives of these writers shared philosophical positions about the content of ethics instruction and several modes of instruction used to provide police ethics training without consensus as to which one is preferred: case study, lectures, role-playing, texts/publications, and videos.

Chapter 3: Methodology

Research in the field of teaching police ethics has been limited overall. The intricate aspect of the police culture's adult learning process is a component that requires more in-depth qualitative analyses. Pollock and Becker (1995) mentioned that "In recent years, ethics training has become a prominent component of police academy and in-service instruction curricula. Yet, despite the heightened interest in such training, ethics remains a difficult subject to teach" (p. 1). Obviously, with this knowledge, the police ethics teaching process is an area of law enforcement training that requires significant attention in an effort to provide quality instruction. This chapter provides the research methodology employed during the course of this study, and describes data collection and analysis techniques used to understand preferred modes of teaching police ethics in higher education law enforcement.

QUALITATIVE FOUNDATIONS

Although the literature review provided a limited amount of research about modes used to teach police ethics, this study was designed to acquire the perspectives of administrators, facilitators, and consumers regarding police ethics training. Qualitative research is based upon the assumption that multiple realities merge to form answers regarding the perception of a person's world. According to Strauss and Corbin (2002):

> There are many valid reasons for doing qualitative research. One reason is the conviction of the researcher based upon research experience. Some researchers also come from a scientific discipline, such as anthropology, or adhere to a philosophical orientation, such as phenomenology, both of which traditionally advocate the use of qualitative methods for data gathering and analysis. (p. 19)

As described by Merriam (2002), data sources often used for research purposes during a qualitative study include observation (fieldwork), interviews and questionnaires,

documents and texts, and the researcher's impressions and reactions. The process of selecting an appropriate research method can be influenced by several factors that include the researcher's beliefs and personal philosophies, the training the researcher has received, and the questions the research seeks to answer (Denzin & Lincoln, 2005). The sources of data for this study focused on the perceptions of the administrators, facilitators and consumers of police ethics training – in essence what have people experienced concerning modes used to teach police ethics. The researcher's professional background has included conducting criminal and administrative investigations. Such experience has required the development of investigative skills that include: the analyses of written statements and oral interviews of victims, witnesses, and suspects; and of officers involved in deviant work-related incidents. In similar respects, the conventional practices of a qualitative field researcher embellish the field-work of a police officer, who must also keenly study, observe, and investigate the research topic, and be accountable for the collection, analysis and documentation of findings.

RESEARCH DESIGN

As previously indicated, this study sought to understand the preferred modes used to teach police ethics in the higher education law enforcement profession. A review of the literature indicated that little research exists about teaching police ethics in higher education law enforcement. A basic qualitative research design and data gathering methods have been chosen for this study. According to Merriam (2002), the design of a basic qualitative research study focuses on interpretation that involves shaping a problem for the study, selecting a sample, collecting and analyzing the data, and writing up the findings. The interpretive nature of this treatise was grounded in the field of qualitative research as characterized by Denzin and Lincoln (2005):

> A situated activity that locates the observer in the world. It consists of a set of interpretive, material practices that make the world visible. These practices transform the world. They turn the world into a series of representations, including field notes, interviews, conversations, photographs, recordings, and memos to the self. At this level, qualitative research involves an interpretive, naturalistic approach to the world. This means that qualitative researchers study things in their natural settings, attempting to make sense of, or interpret, phenomena in terms of the meanings people bring to them. (p. 3)

Furthermore, Stake (1995) observed that qualitative researchers, "...are trying to remain open to the nuances of increasing complexity" (p. 21), thus affording the opportunity to optimize the concept of "progressive focusing" (Huberman & Miles, 1983; Stake, 1994). As data and themes emerge throughout the course of the study, the "organizing concepts change somewhat as the study moves along" (Stake, 1995, p. 133) Qualitative researchers seek "answers to questions that stress how social experience is created and given meaning" (Denzin & Lincoln, 2005, p. 10). According to Patton (2002), qualitative methodologies allow the researcher to study a specific issue in depth and detail. He also explains that qualitative methods are "particularly oriented toward exploration, discovery, and inductive logic" (p. 44). Thus, within the realm of the adult learning process, the researcher has sought to identify the preferred modes that can be practiced to enhance the socio-constructivist pedagogical technique of teaching police ethics.

Interpretivist/Constructivist Paradigm

This study used a basic interpretive/constructivist approach (Merriam, 2002) to analyze data in that "the researcher is interested in understanding how participants make meaning out of a situation or phenomenon, this meaning is mediated through the researcher as instrument, the strategy is inductive, and the outcome is descriptive" (p. 6). According to several researchers (Denzin & Lincoln, 2005; Glesne & Peshkin, 1999;

Patton, 2002) qualitative methods are generally supported by the interpretivist/constructivist paradigm as stated by Glesne and Peshkin(1999):

> The ontological belief for interpretivists, therefore, is that social realities are constructed by the participants in those social settings. To understand the nature of constructed realities, qualitative researchers seek out the variety of perspectives; they do not try to reduce the multiple interpretations to a norm. (p. 5)

Constructivism is the study of the multiple realities constructed by people and the implications of those constructions for their lives and interactions with others (Patton, 2002). The common theme ascribed to a constructivist study is the "emphasis on the socially constructed nature of reality as distinguishing the study of human beings from the study of other natural phenomena" (p. 99). As described by Schwandt (1994):

> The constructivist or interpretivist believes that to understand this world of meaning one must interpret it. The inquirer must elucidate the process of meaning construction and clarify what and how meanings are embodied in the language and action of social actors. (p. 118)

Hence, a basic qualitative design and the interpretive/constructivist paradigm fit well together for this study.

CONTEXT OF RESEARCH PARTICIPANTS

This qualitative study examined the process of providing police ethics training. A survey, multiple interviews, and document analysis were used to collect the data. This new knowledge was uncovered to provide a greater understanding of the preferred modes used to teach police ethics within the higher education law enforcement profession. To discover participant perspectives, the researcher obtained responses from each of the three following roles: administrators, facilitators, and consumers of police ethics training. The administrator role included police chiefs of a university law enforcement agency, and directors of the state law enforcement academy who are responsible for administering a

training curriculum. The facilitator role included university police department field-training officers, commonly referred to as the FTO, and state law enforcement academy instructors who are responsible for teaching newly employed police officers. The consumer role consisted of officers at university police departments. The basis for the selection of each role was to obtain rich and diverse perspectives of the police ethics teaching process from individuals that provide administrative oversight of training, from the instructors who provide the training, and from police officers who receive the training.

A basic qualitative research design provided the researcher with useful tools for the collection and analysis of data. Using multiple data gathering methods provided a richer and in-depth analysis than would be possible using a quantitative method. The researcher's determination of sample participants was realized while attending a Southeastern Conference police chiefs meeting. Subsequent discussion revealed an interest expressed by the researcher's peers that indicated support for the research topic regarding modes used to teach police ethics. A preliminary survey yielded data that developed follow-up interview questions for higher education law enforcement participants. In that respect, the participant interview process exposed the researcher to other perspectives about modes of teaching police ethics, as well as opinions about how to improve the learning environment for police officers in the higher education law enforcement profession.

Initially, this study targeted eight states in the southeast region of the country that included each of the twelve universities of the Southeastern Conference (Auburn University, University of Alabama, University of Florida, University of Kentucky, University of Georgia, University of South Carolina, University of Arkansas, Vanderbilt

University, University of Tennessee, University of Mississippi, Louisiana State University, and Mississippi State University).

The researcher, however, was unable to obtain a sufficient level of participant response from the targeted institutions within the SEC. Subsequently, a lack of participants required the researcher to pursue additional data outside the Southeastern Conference from participants at private and public institutions located in other regions of the United States that included: Yale University, Texas A & M University, Western Carolina University, Truman State University, University of Southern Mississippi, University of North Texas, University of Notre Dame, and University of North Carolina at Asheville. Table 2 depicts the states and universities targeted for this study.

Table 2: Targeted States and Universities

Participant States and Universities			
Number of States		14	
Number of Universities		20	
Universities by State			
Alabama	2	Louisiana	1
Arkansas	1	Missouri	1
Connecticut	1	Mississippi	3
Florida	1	North Carolina	2
Georgia	1	South Carolina	1
Indiana	1	Tennessee	2
Kentucky	1	Texas	2

A participant list was generated from the Southeastern Conference Police Chief membership directory and the public web-sites of each university and of state law enforcement academies. All participation was voluntary, confidential, and at-will. The Institutional Review Board at The University of Texas at Austin determined that this study did not qualify as human research.

DATA COLLECTION

As previously illustrated, this study focused on participant perspectives of the modes used to teach police ethics and their experiences related to the adult learning process. Qualitative research methods provided the researcher with the flexibility to handle multiple data sources, which generally require the use of more than one data collection technique. As suggested by Yin (1993):

> The richness of the context means that the ensuing study will likely have more variables than data points. Second, the richness means that the study cannot rely on a single data collection method but will likely need to use multiple sources ofevidence. (p. 3)

Merriam (2002) provided this perspective concerning the role of a researcher as the data gathering instrument:

> . . . the importance of the researcher in qualitative research cannot be overemphasized. The researcher is the primary instrument for data collection and analysis. Data are mediated through this human instrument, the researcher, rather than through some inanimate inventory, questionnaire, or machine. (p.5)

This basic qualitative study was designed to collect data by utilizing multiple research tools in three distinct ways:

- A Likert scale instrument was designed to assess the perspectives of each participant role (administrators, facilitators, and consumers) regarding preferred modes used of teaching police ethics.

- Interviews of participants – police chiefs, directors of law enforcement academies (administrators); instructors at university police departments (FTO) and law enforcement academies (facilitators), and university police officers (consumers).
- Document analysis reviewed included police academy syllabi, handouts, curricula, and methods of instruction, university police mission statements, codes of ethics, in-service (FTO) training programs, and any other department policies related to police ethics.

Subsequently, the process referred to as triangulation was used to analyze the data by comparing similar perspectives of multiple data sources that provided the researcher with the strongest evidence to confirm findings and develop conclusions for the study. According to Marshall and Rossman (2006), triangulation is a research strategy which involves "bringing more than one source of data to bear on a single data point," so that the researcher is able to "corroborate, elaborate, or illuminate the research in question" (p. 144). LeCompte and Preissle (1993) described triangulation as the ability to cross-check the accuracy of data collected one way against data collected in another way. Yin (1993) added that the researcher should ask the same questions of different sources of evidence and if the same answer is consistently found, then triangulation has been accomplished.

For the purpose of this study, the triangulation process consisted of a comparative analysis of data from a survey, interviews, documents, and the researcher's personal and professional experiences and peer debriefing. According to Lincoln and Guba (1985) triangulating themes that have emerged from document analysis, interviews, and other forms of data relevant to the research at hand can enable even the most careful, rigorous, and skillful of qualitative researchers to be confident of the results of their findings. It is

important to mention that the survey data collected was quantitatively analyzed using a descriptive statistical process that measured the response of each participant role. Generally, data collected from a survey helps answer research questions, but that type of information is generally considered too thin (broad but not deep) to serve as the sole source of information in a qualitative study (Merriam, 2002). The basic qualitative approach of this study; however, required the researcher to become intimately involved in the data collection process of participant interviews and document analysis. Lastly, it is important that the researcher divulge limitations and personal bias relative to the subject of the study. This information will be duly noted later in this chapter.

DESCRIPTIVE RESEARCH

Common types of descriptive research include assessing preferences, attitudes, perspectives, practices, or interests of a particular group (Hinkle, Wiersma, & Jurs, 2003). For the purpose of this study, numerical data were collected from participants through the use of a Likert survey instrument. It is important, however, to reiterate that the researcher was conducting a basic qualitative study, and that the survey provides useful information with which to develop questions for subsequent participant interviews. According to Gay, Mills, and Airsian (2006), descriptive statistical analysis is a quantitative research approach which involves the collection of numerical data to test a hypothesis or answer questions about the status of the subject of study such as what are the preferred modes of teaching police ethics in higher education law enforcement? A descriptive statistical analysis was then conducted to measure the relationship between survey variables of the perspectives and opinions of each participant role about modes used to teach police ethics in higher education law enforcement. The collected survey data were useful in providing evidence of multiple participant perspectives and determining differences by respondent

type for several variables. There was no manipulation of variables and no attempt to establish causality.

SURVEY INSTRUMENT

A Likert scale survey was constructed for respondents to complete in a timely fashion, with minimal imposition, and was strictly voluntary. The intention of the survey was to elicit perspectives of quality and substance specific to the modes used to teach police ethics and the adult learning process; thereby, enhancing the integrity and purpose of the study. The survey was not a comprehensive attempt to discover the cause and effect of a particular style or approach to training police officers. Assurance of confidentiality was conveyed to survey participants. A pilot version of the survey instrument was administered to a colleague in the higher education administration doctoral program at the University of Texas at Austin and a former university police chief who holds a Ph.D. in Criminal Justice. The two individuals were provided a draft of the survey instrument and requested to critique and provide feedback regarding its appropriateness.

The survey (Appendix A) was categorized according to the three participant roles: administrators (police chief/law enforcement academy director), facilitators (department FTO/academy instructor), and consumers (department officer). The survey consisted of 15 statements about police ethics. Participants were also asked to indicate their preference of teaching police ethics using the following five modes: case study, role-playing, lecture, training videos, or texts/publications. Preferred was defined as giving priority to a teaching mode that is more desirable or has more value for providing police ethics training. The survey data were logged into an Excel spreadsheet in the following manner: date of response, e-mail address of participant, and role of participant

(administrator, facilitator, and consumer). Data from the total cumulative sample size (n= 55) was then split and analyzed quantitatively per respondent role as outlined in Table 3.

Table 3: Survey Respondents by Participant Roles

Participant Roles	Frequency	Percent
Administrator	20	36.4
Facilitator	16	29.1
Consumer	19	34.5
Total	55	100.0

There was also an opportunity for respondents to provide additional comments about teaching ethics to higher education law enforcement personnel.

Merriam (2002) mentions:

> With the advent of computer technology and the World Wide Web, data can also be collected on-line. Web pages… and so on can be considered documents simply accessed on-line; interviews can be conducted by e-mail…On-line data collection to some extent offers an electronic extension of familiar data-gathering techniques. (p.13)

The survey was administered by electronically via e-mail. A cover letter was attached to the e-mail that described specifics of the research, provided instructions for completing the survey, the web-site address of the surveys, deadline for submission, and notice of confidentiality. On July 1, 2006, a mass e-mail was distributed to each participant role at university police departments in the Southeastern Conference and state law enforcement academies where officers received training. As previously indicated, the researcher did not obtain sufficient response for conducting follow-up interviews of those who participated in the survey. Subsequently, on November 25, 2006, another mass e-

mail of the survey was communicated. As a subset of that survey, this e-mail included the interview questions that prompted a simultaneous response form participants for both data retrieval processes. Moreover, the subset of interview questions within the survey created an e-mail dialogue between the researcher and participants that added to the richness of the data. By January of 2007, the researcher determined that sufficient data from the survey and interview questions had been collected that reached the optimum threshold to begin coding the data. By March of 2007, the researcher received a sufficient number of documents from police departments and law enforcement academies to begin the document analysis process. Chapter 4 will provide the results of the descriptive statistical analysis.

INTERVIEWS

The use of interviews and observations are commonplace in qualitative research and provide an avenue to obtain perspectives about the issues being studied (Denzin & Lincoln, 2005; Fontana & Frey, 1994; Merriam, 1998; Stake, 1994; Yin, 2003). As suggested by Marshall and Rossman (2006), "In-depth interviewing is a conversation with a purpose… a data collection method relied on quite extensively by a qualitative researcher" (p. 80). Fontana and Frey (1994) discussed the importance of the interaction between researcher and participant through the interview as "The establishment of human-to-human relation with the respondent and the desire to understand rather than to explain" (p. 366). In an effort to facilitate a qualitative study, a researcher's success may be determined by utilizing the most appropriate interview techniques. According to Merriam (1998):

> In qualitative research, the main purpose of an interview is to obtain a special kind of information. The researcher wants to find out what is in and on someone's

> mind. Interviewing is necessary when we cannot observe behavior, feelings, or how people interpret the world around them. (p. 72)

In this study, a combination of targeted interviews was used to identify the modes for teaching police ethics, rather than relying on an exclusive source of data. As such, interviews for this study were semi-structured which provided for a consistent investigation of participant perspectives elicited from the interview questions. The semi-structured approach allowed for an engaging and natural conversation that provided deeper insight as described by Fontana and Fay (1994):

> This makes the interview more honest, morally sound, and reliable, because it treats the respondent as an equal, allows him or her to express personal feelings, and therefore presents a more 'realistic' picture than can be uncovered using traditional interview methods. (p. 371)

Interview questions posed to participants addressed preferred modes used to teach police ethics in the higher education law enforcement profession. The content of the interview questions (Appendix C) was based upon information retrieved from the survey instrument, university police department and law enforcement academy documents related to police ethics training modules, and the preliminary literature review. The first group of interviewees consisted of university police department and law enforcement academy administrators (police chief/director) who provide oversight of department and academy training. The second group of interviewees included the facilitators – field-training officers (FTO) responsible for training new officers, and law enforcement academy instructors. The final group consisted of the consumer of police ethics training – officers of various department. Data from the total cumulative sample size (n=35) was then split and analyzed quantitatively per respondent role (administrator, facilitator, and consumer) as outlined in Table 4.

Table 4: Interview Respondents by Participant Roles

Participant Roles	Frequency	Percent
Administrator	14	40.0
Consumer	11	31.5
Facilitator	10	28.5
Total	35	100.0

The interview questions were electronically (e-mail) formatted and sent to participants. The design of the interview questions provided an opportunity for respondents to elaborate about their perspectives by either telephone or e-mail. As illustrated by Table 5, the majority of respondents chose to respond by e-mail. Three respondents chose to participate in telephone interviews, and one respondent provided an in-person interview.

Table 5: Interview Modes

Interview Tools	Frequency	Percent
Electronic (e-mail)	31	88.5
Telephone	3	8.5
Person (one-on-one)	1	3.0
Total	35	100.0

The participant interviews provided perspectives about adult learning relative to the preferred modes of teaching police ethics. The intent of the interviews was to confirm

and expand upon the information gathered by the survey instrument. Moreover, during the interviews, the researcher engaged in reflexivity, a process described by Guba and Lincoln (2000) as "reflecting critically on the self as researcher" (p.183). In addition, Rossman and Rallis (1998) describe reflexivity as a researcher's internal reflection of the relationship "between the researcher and those being researched" (p.38). Field notes or 'memoing' as described by Miles & Huberman (1984) included a documentation of the researcher's reflective thoughts – the process of memoing will be specifically discussed later in this chapter.

DOCUMENTS

In much the same way that a researcher analyzes the text of interviews, the information selected from documents for inclusion in the study was also examined. Bogdan and Biklen (2007) maintained that "…qualitative researchers are turning to documents as their primary source of data" (p. 64). As previously discussed in this chapter, the need to triangulate data can be facilitated by a review of relevant documents which allows for comparisons from multiple data sources. Marshall and Rossman (2006) added the following:

> Researchers supplement participant observation and interviewing with the gathering and analyzing of documents in the course of everyday events. As such, the review of documents is an unobtrusive method, one rich in portraying the values and beliefs of participants in the setting. (p. 85)

Merriam (2002) described the diversity of documents (written, oral, visual, or cultural artifacts) that may provide useful insight into other potentially fertile areas of study,

> The strength of documents as a data source lies with the fact that they already exist in the situation: they do not intrude upon or alter the setting in ways that the presence of the investigator might. Practical examples of documents include public records, personal documents, and physical materials are all types of documents available to the researcher for analysis. (p. 13)

Ultimately, the decision to include information from documents should be left to the discretion of the researcher and based upon such factors as relevancy to the study, accuracy of the information provided, authenticity of the document, and verifiability (Merriam, 2002). Primarily, the documents gathered for this study were used to obtain information about the preferred modes to teach police ethics. Specifically, documents reviewed police academy syllabi, handouts, curricula, university police mission statements, codes of ethics, in-service (FTO) training programs, and any other department policies related to police ethics. Moreover, data analysis of department and academy documents, along with survey instrument responses, enabled the researcher to develop follow-up questions for the interview process. Table 6 provides a description of relevant documents gathered and analyzed for this study.

Table 6: Selected Documents

Document	Frequency
Code of Ethics	6
Ethics Training Curricula	4
Mission Statement	2
Department Policy	3
FTO Program	2
Total	17

Documents were requested per a cover letter (Appendix B) from both public and private higher education institutions, and state law enforcement academies where campus police officers are trained. In addition, for descriptive purposes that provide the reader

with noteworthy programs which currently exist, this researcher has also reviewed documents of model police ethics training curricula and best practices from such organizations as the Federal Bureau of Investigation, the International Association of Chiefs of Police, and the International Association of Campus Law Enforcement Administrators, all of which provide universally recognized criteria for teaching police ethics.

ANALYSIS OF DATA

A basic qualitative case study amasses huge amounts of raw data; therefore, it is essential to maintain the data in an organized and timely fashion (Denzin & Lincoln, 2005; Fontana & Frey, 1994; Merriam, 1998; Stake, 1994; Yin, 2003). Stake (1994) emphasized that data are continuously interpreted since qualitative research is about "… being ever reflective, the researcher is committed to pondering the impressions, deliberating recollections and records...data are sometimes pre-coded but continuously interpreted, on first sighting and again and again" (p. 242). More importantly, preliminary data analysis must be conducted immediately post-collection or better yet, "the right way to analyze data in a qualitative study is to do it simultaneously with data collection" (Merriam, 1998, p. 162).

As described by Huberman and Miles (1983), "Data reduction actually occurs throughout the entirety of any project involving qualitative data: during basic project design, during data collection itself, and during preliminary and final analysis" (p. 289). Specifically, Huberman and Miles (1983) outlined a detailed procedure for data gathering and analysis that describes the simultaneous nature of the work:

- Fieldwork: on-going analysis and probing of data.
- Coding: the reduction and organization of data into emergent themes.

- Policing to detect bias.
- Connoisseurship: includes the researcher's knowledge of issues.
- Progressive sifting through the data to funnel perspectives.
- Interim summaries that provide a narrative review of research progress.
- Memoing: field notes that share emerging issues.
- Outlining: standardized writing formats. (pp. 291-294)

While these procedures are commonly used in a large, multi-site study, the data analysis process for this study utilized a format to accomplish a similar task for a smaller study with a single researcher. As prescribed by Miles and Huberman (1984), the researcher's data reduction design process consisted of a basic conceptual framework of 20 statements (survey and modes). Preliminary meaning was generated from the triangulation of the multiple data sources: survey, interviews, and documents. According to Stake (1994), "Triangulation has been generally considered a process of using multiple perceptions to clarify meaning, verifying the repeatability of an observation or interpretation...triangulation serves also to clarify meaning by identifying different ways the phenomenon is being seen" (p. 241).

The data reduction process consisted of substituting transcribed interviews of dictated notes that were either typed on a computer or handwritten in a notebook, and all of this combined the elements of summaries, memos, and outlines into a reflective research journal kept by the researcher. These procedures organized the survey, interview, and document data that were collected and delineated thus easing the task of simultaneous collection and analysis. The researcher was paying attention to reoccurring patterns and themes based on the experiences of each participant role (administrator, facilitator, and consumer). Invariably, the data analysis transitioned from noting patterns

and themes to arriving at comparisons and contrasts which provided the experiences and perspectives of preferred modes to teach police ethics.

CODING

For the purpose of this study, a set of rigorous coding procedures guided the researcher's ability to develop informed interpretations of the data. Subsequent data analysis consisted of manually coding the interview transcripts by singling out words and phrases distinctive to the literature review and research question; whereby, patterns and themes were constructed through a constant comparative analysis (Strauss & Corbin, 2002). Specifically, the analysis identified several possible beginning categories, patterns, and themes and their respective properties and dimensions from the literature review that included: social environment, modes of training (case studies, role playing, videos, lecture, and texts), principles of adult learning, and their meaning and application.

Strauss and Corbin (2002) suggested the use of a three-level coding process: open, axial, and selective. In open coding, the data and broken into discrete parts and then viewed by similarities and differences from one another. Merriam (2002) suggested that creativity is an important aspect of the open-coding process. Thus, the researcher selected code words to elicit new insights from the data and grouped the code words into categories. The categorized data included information from the survey, interviews transcripts, field notes, and documents. The researcher further analyzed the content of the interview data by memoing (Huberman & Miles, 1983) and coding paradigms exclusive to other questions posed to discover additional attributes or frequencies within the categorized data. The aim of the coding paradigm was to make explicit distinctions between categories and sub-categories.

Whereas open coding fractures the data into concepts and categories, axial coding is the process of relating codes (categories and properties) to each other via a combination of inductive and deductive thinking (Strauss & Corbin, 2002). Axial coding involved explaining and understanding relationships between categories in order to understand the phenomenon to which they relate (Glaser & Strauss, 1967). According to Strauss and Corbin (2002), axial codes are related to each other according to their subcategories. “Categories are concepts, derived from data that stand for phenomena” (p. 114). Subcategories are categories broken down according to their “conditions, actions/interactions, and consequences” (p. 126).

During axial coding, the categories of data began to be differentiated from one another based on dimensions and properties and sorted accordingly (Strauss & Corbin, 2002). Through a progressive focus and funneling of data (Huberman & Miles, 1983), the researcher inductively examined elements of the data which corroborated the thoughts and ideas discovered within the categories. As categories were identified and organized, they were also named. Categories that seemed to match previously identified factors maintained the original name given by the researcher. In doing so, the possible properties and dimensions that each category represented were more easily assessed and identified. Moreover, this vehicle of self-policing (Huberman & Miles, 1983) facilitated subsequent analysis by avoiding data-collection redundancy and specified what further strands of meaningful information were needed to close gaps.

Finally, selective coding was used to integrate and refine the categories (Strauss & Corbin, 2002). Selective coding is the process of choosing one category to be the core category and relating all other categories to that category (Glaser & Strauss, 1967). The essential idea is to develop a single storyline around which everything else is draped. The categories were tested to ascertain that they were mutually exclusive and collectively

exhaustive in applying participant statements and descriptions of the phenomena. This process entailed "…selecting the core category, systemically relating it to other categories, validating those relationships, and filling in categories that needed further refinement or development" (Strauss & Corbin, 2002, p. 116). This was accomplished by doing another data review that focused on the fit of each datum's placement within the categories. Additional patterns, themes, and codes were realized with every new set of interview transcripts, and past transcripts were reassessed based on the additional identified constructs. Unused data were also assessed to make sure that it could not be sorted into an existing category or used to represent a phenomenon of interest to the study. Once all of the pertinent data were sorted into categories, their relationship to each other became of foremost importance.

MEMOING

According to Miles and Huberman (1984), the device known as "memoing" (p. 69) is another important data source in qualitative research. Memoing was used by the researcher as a stimulus to maintain the distinct differences and similarities relevant to the data collection process. Researchers are easily absorbed in the data-collection process and may fail to reflect on what is happening. Written notes enabled the researcher to record the thoughts and experiences reflected throughout the data collection process.

In addition, the researcher maintained short memos from the field notes derived from interviews and documents to assist in the analysis of the corpus of data. The purpose of the memos was to validate the relationships that linked the emergent categories to each other. Memoing also served as an audit trail that authenticated the research findings and, in essence, was a first hand account of the data retrieved from the participants of the study. Dey (1993) stated that such a paper trail can contribute to the consistency, reliability, and validity of the research process, "While we can not expect others to

replicate our account, the best we can do is to explain how we arrived at our results," (p. 251). Thus, the field notes, code notes and memos were important explanatory mechanisms of data analysis as each transcription provided an account of the dynamic and descriptive narrative of the research study. The intent of the data collection process was to produce emerging themes from the survey instrument, perspectives provided by participants, and documents that would identify preferred modes for teaching police ethics. The process of discovery continued until the explanatory ability and depth of inquiry was exhausted, and no additional data categories were discovered.

TRUSTWORTHINESS

A basic qualitative study is carried out in real-world circumstances and involves close and open communication among the people involved. The researcher of this study is also one of the instruments included in the data collection and inductive analysis. According to Merriam (2002), qualitative research must involve "the rich, thick descriptions, the words (not numbers) that persuade the reader of the trustworthiness of the finding" (p. 15). Thus, trustworthiness, also called validity, is essential to the credibility of the study. As indicated by Glesne and Peshkin (1999):

> Time at your research site, time spent interviewing, and time building sound relationships with respondents all contribute to trustworthy data. When a large amount of time is spent with your research participants, they less readily feign behavior or feel the need to do so; moreover, they are more likely to be frank and comprehensive about what they tell you. (p. 151)

Prior to conducting the survey, and interviews, and reviewing the documents, all persons relevant to this research were informed that participation was voluntary and the wishes of those who did not want to participate in the study were respected. In an effort to ensure trustworthiness and the rigor of this study, the researcher utilized several strategies. For example, member checking (Glesne & Peshkin, 1999) was used to ensure

trustworthiness. Member checking is a common strategy utilized by researchers to ensure the validity of qualitative research through participant interpretation of the research data (Merriam, 2002). The findings in Chapter Four were shared with several members of each participant role (administrators, facilitators, and officers). They then had the opportunity to verify and ensure that their perspectives were appropriately characterized, interpreted, and presented. The participants and researcher discussed any discrepancies and addressed various questions about the outcome of the survey and interview findings without breeching the confidentiality of other respondent information.

Peer debriefing (Lincoln & Guba, 1985) was also used to eliminate the researcher's bias, maintain the trustworthiness of the participants, and ensure the credibility of the study. Peer debriefing involves colleagues who can examine the data and assess whether the findings are plausible. Lincoln and Guba (1985) defined peer debriefing as:

> A process of exposing oneself to a disinterested peer in a manner paralleling an analytic session and for the purpose of exploring aspects of the inquiry that might otherwise remain only implicit within the inquirer's mind. (p. 308)

The researcher provided the survey and interview data to several academic scholars who provided descriptive feedback of methodology and data analyses discrepancies. Likewise, several professional colleagues (non-participant university police chiefs) provided additional input that clarified distinctive aspects of teaching police ethics related to the adult learning process. Feedback was positive and beneficial to the validity of the study.

LIMITATIONS

In any research, it is important to identify the limitations that may inhibit a study while striving to collect the richest and most accurate data possible in an unbiased and non-judgmental demeanor. A researcher should also articulate limitations so that future

research may be conducted and remain analogous to the nature of the original research. For example, because of the researcher's law enforcement background, it was difficult to remain unbiased through the questioning and probing process while trying to learn about participant perspectives concerning modes used to teach police ethics. To some degree, the researcher struggled with respondents in their effort to provide information for this study. Consistent within the cop culture mind-set, there is, to some degree, a reluctance to share information. Particularly when those providing information about ethics do not have control over the outcome of the study, and thus maintain an air of vulnerability.

Another limitation was that the scope of this study did not embody all administrators, facilitators, or consumers in higher law enforcement. An analysis across multiple higher education conferences such as the Pacific 10 Conference, the Big East Conference, the Big 10 Conference, the Big 12 Conference, the Sun Belt Conference, and other private institutions may have added to the richness of the results.

Other limitations affecting the study included time and location. A longitudinal study regarding the academic and retention success of officers related to the adult learning process and classroom environment would have been ideal. During this study, however, time limitations restricted the exploration to first-hand perspectives only. Additional limitations of this study are as follows:

- University police departments and law enforcement academies contacted for this study did not provide police ethics training.
- The survey might have led participants to respond in a manner they believed a more ethical person would, rather than providing their own personal opinion.

- This study included an electronic (e-mail) interview process. This technique minimized the ability to use open-ended questions ordinarily used during telephone or personal contact with participants.
- The limited ability to conduct follow-up interviews might have been the result of participants who were unable to be contacted by telephone, or abstained from a telephone interview due to a department recording device (Dictaphone).

The introductory statement to the survey instrument (Appendix A) attempted to minimize misperceptions about modes used to teach police ethics. Likewise, in an effort to maintain the validity of the study, the follow-up interviews utilized information grounded from the survey data.

SUMMARY

With the impression that police ethics training is inconsistent, lax, and often meaningless, the intended outcome of this research was to collect, compare, and analyze the perspectives of administrators, facilitators, and consumers about police ethics training. Conclusions drawn from this research have provided an understanding of the preferred modes used to teach police ethics, and information that will improve the adult learning process for future training programs in higher education law enforcement. Chapters 4 and 5 will provide the reader with rich and descriptive perspectives from respondents, research findings that have inductively identified preferred modes to teach police ethics, and suggestions for improving the learning environment for higher education law enforcement training.

Chapter 4: Results

The purpose of this study was to determine the preferred modes for teaching police ethics specific to the higher education law enforcement profession. A basic qualitative interpretative approach was used that required an analysis of multiple data sources. The goal of this approach was to interpret the perspectives of each participant role (administrator, facilitator, and consumer) regarding modes used to teach police ethics and the adult learning process. Chapter 4 provides an overview and discussion of the research findings that emerged from the analysis of the Likert survey, participant interviews, and assorted documents. The research questions guiding this study were: 1) Can identifying the preferred modes provide instructors with an opportunity to develop an optimum classroom experience for adult learners? and 2) What are the preferred modes used for teaching police ethics?

Because of the magnitude of data, Chapter 4 is divided into three sections based on emergent themes and the type of analysis. The first section describes the findings of the Likert survey. The second section discusses findings of themes that emerged from participant interviews as related to the researcher's questions. Each theme is discussed in detail utilizing interview excerpts to demonstrate the theme and includes the voices of participants. The third section discusses documents provided by campus police departments and training academies. Each section concludes with a summary relative to creating an optimum adult learning process for future training programs in higher education law enforcement and of the findings specific to the preferred modes to teach police ethics.

SURVEY ANALYSIS

A Likert scale survey collected data that explored participant perspectives about teaching police ethics. The survey data were catalogued into three different reference resources based on the participants' roles as administrators (police chiefs/law enforcement academy directors), facilitators (department FTO/academy instructor), and consumers (officers). In the first part of the survey, participants indicated their level of agreement with a series of statements about police ethics in law enforcement, using a scale of 1 (strongly agree) to 5 (strongly disagree). In the second part of the survey, participants indicated their level of preference for ethics teaching modes, using a scale of 1 (not preferred) to 5 (highly preferred). The Likert scale for perspectives about police ethics was reconfigured in the data analysis phase to mimic the ascendancy of the Likert scale used to measure preferences for ethics teaching modes, thus ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree).

Using Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) version 15.0, descriptive statistics were run to depict the characteristics of the data. Respectively, Table 7 and Table 8 provide the descriptive data captured from the participants (n = 55) who responded to survey statements about ethics training and preferred modes to teach ethics. In Table 7, the most frequent responses to 93% of the statements about teaching police ethics were "agree" or "strongly agree." Statement 11, regarding the process of creating a positive learning environment by training instructors who teach police ethics, most frequently yielded a neutral response. Average levels of agreement across all statements vacillated between 3.1 to 4.8; no response yielded a mean agreement level that fully translated to "strongly agree." In combination, the means, medians, and modes reveal a slight negative skew to the distribution of the data about levels of agreement with statements about teaching ethics in law enforcement, and the spread of scores was

considerable, especially for statements 10 and 11, where the standard deviation exceeded one.

Table 7: Descriptive Statistics - Statements (#1-15)

Survey Analysis					
Police Ethics Statements	**N**	Mean	Median	Mode	Standard Deviation
#1 IACP Study	55	4.3091	4.0000	5.00	.76673
#2 Received Training	55	3.8182	4.0000	4.00	.92478
#3 Principles Benefit	55	4.6545	5.0000	5.00	.55170
#4 Lack Training	55	4.4182	5.0000	5.00	.95628
#5 Scandals Minimized	55	4.3091	5.0000	5.00	.87924
#6 Ethics Training	55	4.5455	5.0000	5.00	.71539
#7 Train Chiefs	55	4.8000	5.0000	5.00	.44721
#8 Ethics Field-Training	55	4.5818	5.0000	5.00	.71209
#9 Ethics in Service	55	4.5091	5.0000	5.00	.66312
#10 Adults Learn Better	55	4.6909	5.0000	5.00	.57325
#11 Training Instructor	55	3.1636	3.0000	3.00	1.04993
#12 Too Often	55	3.4727	4.0000	4.00	1.08619
#13 Re-Examine Teaching	55	4.4909	5.0000	5.00	.66312
#14 Promote Ethics	55	4.2909	4.0000	5.00	.80904
#15 Understanding	55	4.4909	5.0000	5.00	.66312

Table 8 indicated a stronger preference for case study followed by role-playing and videos. Analysis of the data means also revealed a stronger preference for the use of case studies as a means of teaching police ethics above all other teaching modes. The spread of scores around the means was considerable, especially when measuring preferences for using lecture and role-playing where the standard deviation exceeded one.

Table 8: Descriptive Statistics - Modes (#1-5)

Survey Analysis					
Modes	N	Mean	Median	Mode	Standard Deviation
Case Study	55	4.0364	4.0000	5.00	.92223
Role Playing	55	3.4364	4.0000	4.00	1.25851
Videos	55	3.6364	4.0000	4.00	.93023
Lecture	55	2.7091	3.0000	2.00	1.22735
Texts	55	2.9273	3.0000	2.00	.95945

It was important to establish homogeneity of the groups by participant type in order to meet the assumption of homogeneity necessary to continue data analysis with parametric tests, namely the one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA). Two tests of homogeneity of variance were run on the data generated by the survey: the first determined homogeneity of variance for the data representing levels of agreement with statements about police ethics in law enforcements and the second represented levels of preference for preferred teaching modes. Tables 9 and 10 indicate that all variables under consideration in this study met the assumption of homogeneity of variance with the

exception of police ethics statement 7 concerning ethics training for police chiefs and statement 8 concerning the incorporation of ethics into field training. Thus, an analysis of variance was not conducted for data concerning levels of agreement with police ethics statements 7 and 8.

Table 9: Test of Homogeneity - Statements (#1-15)

Police Ethics Statements (#1-15)	Levene Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.
1. IACP Study	.650	2	52	.526
2. Received Training	1.022	2	52	.367
3. Principles Benefit	1.018	2	52	.368
4. Lack Training	.779	2	52	.464
5. Scandals Minimized	1.052	2	52	.356
6. Ethics Training	2.151	2	52	.127
7. Train Chiefs	9.305	2	52	.000
8. Ethics Field-Training	13.968	2	52	.000
9. Ethics in Service	2.728	2	52	.075
10. Adults Learn Better	1.129	2	52	.331
11. Training Instructor	.104	2	52	.902
12. Too Often	.167	2	52	.846
13. Re-Examine Teaching	2.001	2	52	.146
14. Promote Ethics	2.910	2	52	.063
13. Understanding	2.087	2	52	.134

Table 10: Test of Homogeneity of Variance - Modes (#1-5)

Preferred Modes (#1-5)	Levene Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.
Case Study	.314	2	52	.732
Lecture	2.687	2	52	.078
Role Playing	2.336	2	52	.107
Texts	.680	2	52	.511
Videos	.221	2	52	.802

A one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) was conducted with the data representing levels of agreement with police ethics statements (omitting statements 7 and 8) as well as for the data representing levels of preference for police ethics teaching modes. The ANOVA was an appropriate test to use because there were three participant roles in the study: administrator, facilitator, and consumer. Using the ANOVA, differences in means were tested between as well as within groups. Table 11 summarizes the ANOVA results for the police ethics statements. Overall, there were no statistically significant differences between respondent types on levels of agreement with the ethics statements at the 0.05 level, with the exception of statement 1 regarding level of agreement with a statement by the International Association of Chiefs of Police concerning ethics. A post-hoc analysis indicated that the differences in agreement were significant between administrators and consumers.

Table 11: Analysis of Variance - Statements (#1-15, omitting #7-8)

Ethics Statements	Analysis Type	Sum of Squares	df	Mean	F	Sig.
IACP Study	Between Groups	4.248	2	2.124	4.017	.024
	Within Groups	27.497	52	.529		
	Total	31.745	54			
Received Training	Between Groups	.636	2	.318	.363	.697
	Within Groups	45.545	52	.876		
	Total	46.182	54			
Principles Benefit	Between Groups	.265	2	.132	.425	.656
	Within Groups	16.172	52	.311		
	Total	16.436	54			
Lack Training	Between Groups	.577	2	.288	.307	.737
	Within Groups	48.805	52	.939		
	Total	49.382	54			
Scandals	Between Groups	2.006	2	1.003	1.312	.278
	Within Groups	39.739	52	.764		
	Total	41.745	54			
Ethics Training	Between Groups	2.255	2	1.127	2.310	.109
	Within Groups	25.382	52	.488		
	Total	27.636	54			
Ethics in Service	Between Groups	3.719	2	1.860	4.829	.012
	Within Groups	20.026	52	.385		
	Total	23.745	54			
Adults Learn Better	Between Groups	.124	2	.062	.184	.833
	Within Groups	17.621	52	.339		
	Total	17.745	54			
Training Instructor	Between Groups	.872	2	.436	.387	.681
	Within Groups	58.655	52	1.128		
	Total	59.527	54			
Too Often	Between Groups	1.654	2	.827	.693	.505
	Within Groups	62.055	52	1.193		
	Total	63.709	54			
Re-Examine	Between Groups	.071	2	.036	.078	.925
	Within Groups	23.674	52	.455		
	Total	23.745	54			
Promote Ethics	Between Groups	.961	2	.481	.727	.488
	Within Groups	34.384	52	.661		
	Total	35.345	54			
Understanding	Between Groups	.364	2	.182	.405	.669
	Within Groups	23.382	52	.450		
	Total	23.745	54			

Table 12 summarizes the ANOVA results for the levels of preference for police ethics teaching modes. There were statistically significant differences within the three participant roles for case study, lecture, role-playing, and texts above the 0.05 level. Post-hoc analysis indicated that the preference differences were significant between administrators and facilitators for each of the teaching modes that showed a difference. In addition, there was a difference in preference between facilitators and consumers for lecture and role-playing.

Table 12: Analysis of Variance - Modes (#1-5)

Preferred Modes (#1-5)	Analysis Type	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Case Study	Between Groups	16.806	2	8.403	15.004	.000
	Within Groups	29.122	52	.560		
	Total	45.927	54			
Lecture	Between Groups	21.603	2	10.801	9.401	.000
	Within Groups	59.743	2	1.149		
	Total	81.345	54			
Role Playing	Between Groups	11.508	2	5.754	4.042	.023
	Within Groups	74.019	52	1.423		
	Total	85.527	54			
Texts	Between Groups	3.064	2	1.532	1.708	.191
	Within Groups	46.645	52	.897		
	Total	49.709	54			
Videos	Between Groups	7.450	2	3.725	4.932	.011
	Within Groups	39.277	52	.755		
	Total	46.727	54			

A chi-square contingency analysis was conducted in order to determine expected frequencies by using marginal totals. The chi-square analysis was also used to cross-tabulate pairs of variables in each data set. For survey statements 1-15, a significant Pearson chi-square (.023) was determined for only one statement (#14 promote ethics), meaning that there were differences by respondent type for promoting ethics. Based upon the chi-square analyses, there were no significant differenes determined for the remaining statements. Table 13 illustrates the differences of respondents on levels of agreement with police ethics training statements.

Table 13: Pearson Chi-square Values - Statements (#1-15)

Ethics Statements	Pearson Chi-square	df	Significance
IACP Study	9.207	6	.162
Received Training	4.268	6	.640
Principles Benefit	3.032	4	.553
Lack Training	6.527	8	.588
Scandals Minimized	7.789	8	.454
Ethics Training	6.281	6	.392
Train Chiefs	9.405	4	.052
Ethics Field Training	9.487	6	.148
Ethics in Service	8.780	4	.067
Adults Learn Better	2.148	4	.709
Training Instructor	4.972	8	.761
Too Often	2.347	6	.885
Re-Examine Teaching	5.331	6	.502
Promote Ethics	14.632	6	.023
Understanding	5.053	6	.537

For preferred modes survey statements 1-5, significant Pearson chi-square values were determined for three modes. Table 14 illustrates the differences of respondent preference of the preferred modes for teaching case study, lecture, and role-playing.

Table 14: Pearson Chi-square Values - Modes (#1-5)

Modes	Pearson Chi-square (a)	df	Significance
Case Study	25.102	6	.000
Lecture	21.250	8	.007
Role Playing	33.185	8	.000
Texts	7.956	8	.438
Videos	13.008	8	.112

- Most facilitators (instructors) indicated that creating a positive learning environment was difficult.
- An overwhelming number of respondents indicated the need to re-examine current teaching practices.
- The lecture mode was preferred by facilitators (instructors) but least preferred by consumers (officers).
- The preferred modes of teaching police ethics for administrators and consumers were case study, role-playing, and videos.

The following information will present the findings based on the participant responses to two specific police ethics statements from the survey. In addition, the findings from participants relative to preferred modes to teach will be discussed.

Survey Statements 11 and 13

The researcher purposely positioned survey statements 11 and 13 that are specific to the adult learning process (see Appendix A), and were used explain the reporting

occurrences of the qualitative findings. Table 15 provides a participant perspective of survey statement 11 concerning the learning environment.

Table 15: Survey Statement 11

Training instructors who teach police ethics have a difficult time creating a positive learning environment.	n	Agree	Percent	Disagree	Percent
Administrator	20	6	30%	14	70%
Facilitator	16	10	63%	6	37%
Consumer	19	5	26%	14	74%
Total	55	21	38%	34	62%

The emergent finding from statement 11 was that 63% of training instructors (facilitators) agreed that they had a difficult time creating a positive learning environment, while 70% of administrators and 74% of consumers disagreed. Such a disproportionate response indicates that instructors who teach police ethics could be more aware of the critical aspects of professional development when compared to adult learners. Likewise, recipients of the ethics training may also have different reasons for learning about a particular topic as opposed to the purpose-driven instructor providing the subject matter. Table 16 provides a participant perspective for survey statement 13 regarding current teaching practices and adult learning principles.

Table 16: Survey Statement 13

Law enforcement administrators and instructors must re-examine current teaching practices and find ways to incorporate adult learning principles, strategies, and methodologies into police ethics training programs.	n	Agree	Percent	Disagree	Percent
Administrator	20	20	100%	0	0
Facilitator	16	13	81%	3	19%
Consumer	19	17	90%	2	10%
Total	55	50	91%	5	9%

The emergent finding from statement 13 indicated that an astounding 91% of respondents believed that the teaching practices of current police ethics training programs should be re-examined. The participant responses of both statements 11 and 13 correlate with the literature which suggests that law enforcement training must involve a recognition of the adult learning process regarding the motives that direct and influence an adult's ability to acquire new knowledge and skills (Kennedy, 2003). The relevancy relates to the level of competency of those who teach ethics in police academies and in-service training programs; it also relates to the content of the curriculum. Brookfield (1986) contended that the teacher-learner relationship could be developed if the instructor recognized the learner's needs, and then they should mutually agree upon goals and objectives. Likewise, Senge (2006) emphasized that individuals and not organizations learn, and that the process of learning involves the instructor’s ability to challenge and extend the student to go beyond his or her current level of competence.

Survey: Modes of Teaching

The survey findings regarding participant preferences for modes used to teach police ethics provided additional interesting perspectives. The first finding that emerged from the survey data was that administrators and consumers preferred case study, videos and role-playing. Table 17 provides the survey findings regarding the modes preferred by participants.

Table 17: Survey Data – Preferred Modes of Participants

Mode	Preference	Administrator (n=20)	Facilitator (n=16)	Consumer (n=19)	Frequency	Percent
Case Study	Highly/Generally	19	4	16	39	71%
	Neutral	1	9	3	13	24%
	Least/Not	0	3	0	3	5%
Videos	Highly/Generally	13	6	15	34	62%
	Neutral	6	7	2	15	27%
	Least/Not	1	3	2	6	11%
Role Playing	Highly/Generally	16	2	12	30	55%
	Neutral	2	8	3	13	24%
	Least/Not	2	6	4	12	21%
Lecture	Highly/Generally	2	11	6	19	35%
	Neutral	5	3	2	10	18%
	Least/Not	13	2	11	26	47%
Texts	Highly/Generally	5	6	7	18	33%
	Neutral	6	5	6	17	31%
	Least/Not	9	5	5	19	35%

In addition to identifying the respondent's preferred modes to teach police ethics, other themes surfaced from the survey data. The survey findings suggest a disconnect involving how instructors want to teach and how consumers prefer to be taught. Additional information emerged from the survey data that seems to support the notion that the facilitators (instructors) may be the precipitators of a less than salient learning environment, and that the educational process should be a focal point for improvement. Moreover, based upon responses to statements 11 and 13, facilitators (instructors) clearly recognize that the learning environment is in need of improvement, which would support the disparity that emerged from the data concerning how facilitators teach and how consumers prefer to be taught. Further analysis of the data revealed that 11 of 16 (68%) of the facilitators (instructors) preferred the lecture mode while 11 of 19 consumers (58%) did not prefer lecture. The facilitator/consumer gap identified from the survey data regarding the lecture mode preference may further suggest that the relationship between instructor and consumer (officer) does not endear itself to an engaging classroom experience or optimal level of learning.

Specific to this study, the survey findings provided interesting perspectives regarding preferred modes used to teach police ethics and revealed additional themes related to the adult learning process. Analysis of the survey data supported the general conclusion that there is a need for facilitators of police ethics training to improve the adult learning process for officers by influencing the ability to learn and utilizing preferred modes to teach. In addition, the findings of statements 11 and 13 and the survey data regarding participant preferred modes were instrumental in the development of interview questions.

INTERVIEWS

Concluding the survey data analysis, interviews were conducted of respondents from each of the targeted participant roles: administrators, facilitators, and consumers. Invariably, travel and time limitations precluded the researcher from engaging in direct observation of classroom instruction or person-to-person interviews, as would have been preferred. Several of the interviews were by telephone and in-person, while most occurred via e-mail exchange. Nonetheless, the interview collection process yielded sufficient data that was rich and diverse and enhanced the use of the constant comparative method as described in Chapter 3 by Glaser and Strauss (1967). Table 18 illustrates the total cumulative interview sample of n=35, whereby the data was analyzed per participant role.

Table 18: Participants Interviewed

Participant Role	Frequency	Percent
Administrator	14	40.0
Facilitator	10	28.5
Consumer	11	31.5
Total (n)	35	100.0

The subsequent data that emerged from survey statements 11 and 13, along with the survey preferred modes data identified by participants, enabled the researcher to develop five specific interview questions (Appendix C). The design of the interview questions required respondents to elaborate on their experiences, opinions, and knowledge related to elements of the adult learning process and modes used to teach police ethics. All

transcription and reported data used the monikers – administrator (chief/academy director), facilitator (department FTO/academy instructor), and consumer. Those interviewed also provided information that contextualized several other important issues or situations that emerged relative to training, but not specific to modes used to teach police ethics.

Categorizing the Data

During the interview analysis, words, phrases, and paragraphs that seemed relevant to the study were coded onto individual index cards and then conceptually grouped to identify emerging themes, categories, and subcategories. Constant comparative analysis then revealed relationships and patterns amongst these themes and categories. The following main themes emerged from the data:

- Theme One: Importance of Teaching Police Ethics
- Theme Two: Police Ethics Training
- Theme Three: Teaching Police Ethics
- Theme Four: Adult Learning Experience
- Theme Five: Ethical Influences
- Theme Six: Preferred Modes Used to Teach Police Ethics

Most of the themes also had other categories and subcategories. As a reference to the reader, a box identifying the theme and any corresponding categories or subcategories precedes each section. Following the box is a brief introduction to the section, including information alluding to the categories and subcategories, when appropriate. Within each section, the theme, categories, and subcategories will include a narrative by quoting the participant's voice from the interviews. A brief conclusion at the end of the each section reiterates each theme.

THEME ONE: IMPORTANCE OF POLICE ETHICS

Categories: Cornerstone

Categories: Frequency and Value of Ethics Training

Theme one includes participant perspectives about the importance of teaching police ethics in both the department and law enforcement academy environment. The responses were supportive of the position ascribed by Trautman (2005) that most law enforcement agencies have never offered ethics training to officers. Mortenson and Gesa (1996) stated that ethics training is important because officers can be provided with specific guidelines that pertain to decision-making and ethical behavior. The following comments provide a vast spectrum of interesting thoughts about the importance and challenges of teaching police ethics.

> Police ethics training is very important… Administrator #54
>
> Ethics should be covered thoroughly at police academies and within individual departments and occasionally throughout ones career. Administrator #25
>
> …ethics are law enforcement's greatest training need and this type of training is actually non-tactical survival training. Facilitator #35
>
> Ethics instruction has not been a high priority within basic police academies, and academies have sometimes conveyed the message that ethics was not a critical issue. Administrator #28
>
> I do not agree that police ethics training is all that important. Police ethics is vitally important but the training is often wasted effort. The most it will do is reinforce ethics already learned. Facilitator #46
>
> Ethics in police work must be constantly reinforced in the face of a society that doesn't necessarily practice positive ethics. Administrator #42
>
> Ethics is one of the primary courses that should be taught to all law enforcement and security officers. Facilitator #19

> To little is addressed about this subject both by departments and police academies. There is a strong need for emphasis on the subject. Consumer #52
>
> My department does a good job of expressing the importance of police ethics… Facilitator #51
>
> Ethics are one of the most important aspects of law enforcement. Facilitator #55

Cornerstone

Participant roles spoke very strongly about the importance of ethics serving as a foundation for all police work.

> Ethics is one of the cornerstones of law enforcement. Facilitator #19
>
> In recent years, ethics training has become a prominent component of police academy and in-service instruction curricula. Facilitator #24
>
> Very important, especially if we are going to hold our officers accountable for their actions. Consumer #45
>
> The foundation of police ethics is vital because it has to last the rest of his/her law enforcement career. Consumer #14
>
> One element about training is clear: if it is to be effective, it needs to be rigorous and it needs to emphasize critical thinking skills, reasoning skills, reasoning ability, and problem-solving techniques. Administrator #12
>
> This is an important topic. I'm glad to see you are conducting research on this. Administrator #42
>
> Police ethics have always been an important topic just like in other professions. Police ethics represents the foundation of our profession. Administrator #25

Frequency and Value of Ethics Training

Participants mentioned that ethics training should be frequent and applicable, a life-long process. Other participants expressed that ethics training did not matter. There was also an emphasis regarding the value of police ethics training related to officer-work

performance. As mentioned in the IACP Ad Hoc committee report (1997), the training of police officers is most effective when officers fully appreciate how they will benefit.

> Ethics training is one of those subjects that falls under the necessary evils. However, if conducted properly this can be very advantageous training. Facilitator #11
>
> I am of the opinion that ethics cannot be taught. Ethics training will reinforce how important this type of ethical behavior is, but it will not make an ethical person where one did not already exist. Facilitator #46
>
> Ethics training is being taught to all work force personnel today. We see from some high profile cases like ENRON that teaching ethics does not have a great deal of effect on one's behavior. Consumer #48
>
> I believe ethics training should be emphasized in all phases of an officer's career. I think it is important to keep this topic in the forefront of every officer's mind. Not just the front line officers but the entire organization. Administrator #43
>
> Morals and ethics are qualities engrained in the individual characteristics of each officer. Ethics training doesn't encourage officers to perform at a greater moral level; it does however define the consequences for not doing so. Officer who possess strong moral and ethical characteristics don't have to be trained, it's already there. They will do the right thing. And for those who don't have it unless some type of divine intervention comes into play, they never will. Consumer #53
>
> The most you can do with ethics training is reinforce good behavior from those who would behave well already and scare the bad apples - hopefully enough to keep them on the straight and narrow. Facilitator #46
>
> Ethics training is a life-long process. I believe you can hone the moral/ethical fiber of an individual, but you must have a strong foundation to build upon. Administrator #37
>
> Different training concepts should be used because not everyone learns at the same pace. Also ethics training should be ongoing throughout one’s career, not just at the beginning. Facilitator #51
>
> FTOs should teach ethics/career survival to new officers. Facilitator #17
>
> Train FTOs (department instructor) in how to use audio/video ethics simulation training for new officers – the guy we have now sucks at it! Consumer #29

> I believe police ethics should be taught early and frequently as possible. Consumer #14
>
> This shouldn't be a one time presentation - there should be periodic reviews or ethics-related training scheduled on a fairly regular basis in the department. Consumer #49
>
> FTO's provide case studies that address the ethical perspectives of each training topic and train senior patrol officers in addition to rookies. Administrator #7

CONCLUSION

Participant responses illustrated that teaching police ethics in both the department and academy is of significant benefit to the performance levels of individual officers for maintaining department integrity and for supporting societal expectations.

THEME TWO: POLICE ETHICS TRAINING

Categories: **Department**
Subcategories: Administrators

Categories: Academy
Subcategories: Instructors

Department

Participant roles, particularly facilitators and consumers, provided interesting perspectives about police ethics training within a law enforcement department. The comments included the need for departments to provide ethics training to new officers who have completed the law enforcement academy and in-service training to all officers within a department. The participant comments emphasized that higher education law enforcement departments must play a key role in the development and implementation of ethics training.

> Police ethics should be covered thoroughly… within individual departments and occasionally throughout one's career. Administrator #25
>
> In-service (department FTO) training is needed to enhance ethical decision retention. Facilitator #55
>
> …critical that it be included in basic police academy training and then reinforced/augmented by the employing agency itself. Consumer #49
>
> Inside the department, it is very important in teaching new officers to not only care themselves about good ethics while on the job, but also off the job. Doing the right thing on the job is what matters most. Administrator #54
>
> The department… should provide the same type teachings so the officer will know how to respond and how to act as an officer on and off the job. Consumer #9
>
> Police ethics needs to be administered in my opinion in detail after the academy. Different departments have special circumstances that involve special ethical practices that may only apply at that department, example a Sheriff Department compared to a University PD. Facilitator #51
>
> The academy gives you general guidelines that cover a broad spectrum, whereas an individual department can provide emphasis on the most common aspects of a given topic unique to that department. So I believe you need both for it to be most effective. Consumer #47
>
> FTO programs are critical to preventing misconduct. FTOs should always play a major role in in-service ethics training, and it costs nothing for them to conduct the training. Administrator #7

Administrators

Several comments from consumers (officers) spoke very critically about department administrators concerning ethics training. Participant responses support Metz's (1986) contention that in an effort to condition officers about ethical conduct, the police profession needs to incorporate law enforcement ethics training at the administrative level as well.

> When chiefs and sheriffs choose not to attend ethics training, their absence conveys the message that the training was not important enough for them to be present. Consumer #23
>
> Actions speak louder than words. A finely crafted, workable, and well-publicized code of ethics will ring hollow if it is not supported by the behavior of supervisors. Police administrators must dedicate themselves to ethical management. Consumer #29
>
> Department administrators, including the chief, should also participate in ethics training in the officer's classroom setting. Consumer #20
>
> Executive development ethics training should be developed and presented first. Facilitator #17
>
> Most corruption prevention solutions fail to be utilized because decision-makers have little knowledge about them. To make matters worse, the decision-makers often fail to take advantage of opportunities to learn about the solutions. Consumer #23
>
> Administrators are viewed as hypocrites when the troops are ordered to ethics training while glaring unethical situations within the department remain unaddressed. They should participate in training, take affirmative steps to encourage ethical behavior, and set their agency's moral tone through observable exemplary behavior. Consumer #20
>
> Most FTO programs struggle with a variety of serious problems such as poor communication, lack of standardization, a flawed FTO selection process, insufficient compensation and inadequate support from administrators. Facilitator #17
>
> Top leaders must address their agency's ethical problems prior to ethics training being conducted, or it becomes very difficult for an ethics instructor to tell non-supervisors they must hold themselves accountable for their behavior. Consumer #20

The comments expressed concerned the role of campus police departments regarding police ethics training. Particular emphasis was placed on the importance of teaching police ethics as an aspect of a department's organizational integrity, and that ethics training should be an on-going process that is supported by department supervisors.

Academy

As indicated by Hyams (1991), for many police departments, the academy is often the first and only time that an officer is exposed to ethics training. Participants provided comments about the value of teaching police ethics to new officers at a law enforcement training academy.

> The state law enforcement commission mandates a minimum of 2 hours of instruction in police ethics which acquaints inexperienced police officers with ethical problems that they may confront. The course also equips recruits with the ability to recognize basic ethical issues and principles that they can use when they encounter ethical dilemmas. Facilitator #31
>
> Police ethics can be taught, and students' understanding and retention of professional standards and ethical principles can be tested and measured. Further, the principles should be reinforced and tested throughout the academy curriculum. Administrator #13
>
> Police ethics in the academy are important due to the fact that “this is where it all begins,” so to speak. Consumer #14
>
> Have the academy director, when addressing the new recruit class for the first time, emphasize ethics and integrity, and stress that these two concepts are the highest priorities of the academy. Consumer #20
>
> Training at the academy should introduce recruits to police ethical dilemmas… Consumer #20
>
> The academy should provide the same type of ethics teachings so the officer will know how to respond and act as an officer on and off the job. Consumer #9
>
> During his or her academy experience, if any form of cheating or other unethical behavior occurs, we will take immediate action up to dismissing the officer. Administrator #18
>
> When someone like myself is young and has never been exposed to law enforcement enters the academy, the foundation of police ethics is vital because it has to last the rest of his/her law enforcement career. Consumer #14
>
> Academy environments give officers integrity in relation to ethics and sometimes officers lose this integrity as they progress through years of service. Facilitator #55

> … when you have only so many weeks to fit hundreds of hours of training into the academy curriculum, you have to prioritize how things are done. Unfortunately, teaching ethics becomes a low priority. Facilitator #35

Instructors

The relationship of the adult learner and instructor is an important element of the adult learning experience. McKeachie (2005) emphasized the need for instructors to listen and to treat students with respect, and advocated placing the responsibility of student learning upon the instructor because ultimately the best assessment of teaching is evidence of learning. Participants indicated that preparation, delivery, and motivation, were integral aspects of an instructor's ability to foster a positive adult learning experience.

> It is imperative that the instructor develop a method of training that will grab students with attention and keep them interested so that students will interact with the class and topic being discussed. Administrator #12

> In order for police professionals to identify principles of professional ethics that will help them to police and manage, the discussion leader must present realistic ethical dilemmas information about the nature of policing and professional ethics. This will provoke the thoughts of the participants and spur meaningful discussion. Consumer #29

> There are good instructors. I recall one comment from an instructor that he was there to teach what others have thought about right and wrong behavior. He saw himself as a facilitator… Consumer #23

> A lot of it will depend on the skill of delivery of the person giving the course. Consumer #23

> Instructors require the formation of a simulated ethics committee to conduct ethics audits and to define the ethical principles needed in policing. Facilitator #31

> …every academy instructor should address the ethical perspectives of their particular topics. Administrator #13

> Yes, but it must be done by competent and qualified instructors. Consumer #52

> Every instructor should address the ethical perspectives of each training topic and use the most effective tools and techniques available. Administrator #40
>
> If the instructor relates well with the students, he/she will have better participation. Administrator #37
>
> Not that the instructor should necessarily be law enforcement related, but someone who understands the profession. Administrator #40
>
> Instructors should generally focus on practical exercises to reinforce desired behavior. Administrator #6

CONCLUSION

As stated by Lynch (1999), it is essential that law enforcement academies develop the ethics curriculum that is meaningful, and then utilize the preferred modes to teach ethics during the adult learning process. Kennedy (2003) indicated that by applying a sound instructional design process, departments can create a more effective course that moves the learning from simple cognition to affective learning, reflecting a change in attitudes and practice.

THEME THREE: TEACHING POLICE ETHICS

Categories: Difficult to Teach…Not Enough Time or Interest

Categories: Meaning and Application

Theme three encompassed the perspectives of participants regarding their thoughts about teaching police ethics. Gilmartin and Harris (1998) stated that while ethics training is necessary, the process of teaching ethics can be rendered ineffective if it is not presented properly. Participants provided the following perspectives about teaching police ethics. Responses included comments specific to teaching modes, classroom

environment, and adult learning. Consumers (officers) were quite specific about suggesting what modes should be used, while administrators remained philosophical.

> We must remember at all times that the education and training of law enforcement personnel must always be reasonable. Administrator #7
>
> I believe that a department can impress upon its officers the seriousness in which unethical behavior is viewed by stressing the importance of ethics in training and by acknowledging and disciplining violations and this may help prevent an unethical air or tolerance within the department. Administrator #27
>
> Ethical statements along with appropriate training…encourage law enforcement officers to become members of an ethical profession. Administrator #28
>
> Have instructors use their experience in law enforcement to provide ethical dilemma training that teaches officers the need for and how to intervene when another officer appears to commit an unethical act. Consumer #20
>
> I think ethics should be taught in a classroom environment also by the supervisors on each shift. Facilitator #50

Difficult to Teach…Not Enough Time…Not Enough Interest

Several participants commented about how difficult a subject ethics was to teach, that there was not enough time to teach ethics, and that there was not enough interest. Pollack (1993) asserted that because of time constraints, instructors should concentrate on the application of ethical principles to situations that officers may likely encounter while on the job rather than a theoretical approach.

> Ethics training… is a very difficult topic for an instructor to teach to officers and keep them interested. Facilitator #11
>
> It is difficult to teach ethics to officers when they are given so many little perks, like coffee, or lunch. Consumer #48
>
> I believe ethics to be programmed from day one and difficult to re-program. Administrator #27

> I wish there was time to fit in videos and have role-playing scenarios, but there is not, plus, compared to other training needs, I am not sure there is also enough interest. Facilitator #11

> Ethics training is a set of activities that provides an opportunity to acquire and improve job-related skills. A majority of officers have mastered much of the mandated training and often work in areas where the training has little job relevancy. Administrator #18

> The teaching of ethics is not received by unethical officers anyway, as they can justify their own unethical behavior. Administrator #12

> We have to get through the training modules quickly – in a timely fashion, and I do not want it to absorb more time than necessary. Facilitator #19

> Ethics can be a difficult topic with police officers - some officers may take a defensive attitude - training can be resisted by some officers. Consumer #49

Meaning and Application

Participants included comments about the relevancy of police ethics training and the need for such training to be meaningful and applicable so that officers were better equipped to perform their jobs. As expressed by Kennedy (2003), faster and more effective learning occurs when instructors use teaching techniques that utilize the previous experience of the learner. In terms of preventative measures, Cooksey (1991) contended that ethics training provides officers the opportunity to interact and request clarification of standards of conduct in terms of specific actions commonly encountered in police work.

> My department does a good job of expressing the importance of police ethics through the adult learning process from everyday situations and showing how bad ethics can turn a good situation bad and a bad situation worse. Facilitator #51

> The course equips recruits with the ability to recognize basic ethical issues and principles that they can use when they encounter ethical dilemmas. Facilitator #31

> Despite the growing rhetoric concerning police ethics, few attempts have been made to determine what ethical concerns we as officers really identify with. Consumer #23

> Too often information is put out without measuring the effectiveness of it. Consumer #52

> Ethic training encompasses a wide range of issues but cannot include every possible scenario. Necessarily vague guidelines provide flexibility for individual interpretations and for unique circumstances. Consumer #29

> Our view is that the meaning is relatively clear and to some extent the application. More emphasis should perhaps be placed on application. Administrator #25

> In a way that everyone can understand and know what is to be expected of them, and how it can be applied in every day use. Consumer #9

> You have to make it relevant to the learner. It cannot be preachy or it will be ignored. Administrator #43

> One way to ensure a sense of relevance is to use an officer's own personal dilemmas in guiding the discussion. Consumer #23

CONCLUSION

Participants described how teaching police ethics should be participatory by conducting a learning activity based upon an assessment and discussion of ethics and values. Rapkin (1994) stated the need for instructors of police ethics to recognize the importance of ethical issues and provide adult learners an opportunity to think and talk about these issues.

THEME FOUR: ADULT LEARNING EXPERIENCE

Categories: Andragogy

Categories: Cooperative Learning

Categories: Situated Learning

The adult learning process takes place in a variety of settings commonly referred to as environments for formal adult learning. Participants provided perspectives about their adult learning experiences related to andragogy, cooperative learning, and situated learning. Kennedy (2003) advocated that the key to more effective training is to apply the concepts of adult learning that will influence an adult's ability to understand the knowledge taught and subsequently develop the skills necessary for the law enforcement profession.

Andragogy

Participants provided perspectives that related to andragogy - the process of helping adults learn. Knowles (1984) indicated that adults should be involved in the planning process of their instruction, that adults are more interested in learning about subjects that have an immediate relevance to their job or personal life, and that instructors should adopt the role of being a resource rather than lecturer. Participants provided comments related to the principles of andragogy.

> In another useful exercise, we encourage officer trainees to answer the question, What would policing be like if all police officers acted ethically? This exercise emphasizes the need for ethical behavior in any effort to professionalize policing. Administrator #6

> Yes. I inherited a department that does very little in-house training and has relied upon local training centers that do not necessarily, in my opinion, practice the best androgogical methods. Therefore, I am having to explore means to revamp our training programs. Administrator #42
>
> I was fortunate enough to attend an ethics class once… it was very informative and gave students the opportunity to express their opinions of, What would you do in this situation? Facilitator #55
>
> Instructors ask each officer to draft a one-sentence code of ethics. In essence, the students write down what they consider to be the central elements to being a good police officer. After collecting and reading these one-sentence codes to the class, the instructors lead a discussion to analyze the values expressed and identify those values cited most frequently. Administrator #6
>
> I encourage officer trainees to answer the question, What would policing be like if all police officers acted ethically? This exercise emphasizes the need for ethical behavior… Facilitator #11
>
> Instructors require the formation of a simulated ethics committee to conduct ethics audits and to define the ethical principles needed in policing. Facilitator #31
>
> Present a formalized four to eight-hour interactive ethics training presentation That involves the officer and instructor. Consumer #29
>
> A discussion between officers in the class and the instructor about ethical frameworks to help resolve different moral dilemmas. Administrator #6
>
> We use an ethics curriculum that provides the individual officer with an ethics framework, skills in ethical decision-making… instructors give the officers an opportunity to be involved by applying those skills in scenario-based ethical dilemmas. Facilitator #17

Self-directed

Participants expressed their preference for self-directed study – the ability of adults to take the initiative for diagnosing their learning needs and then formulating a process that identifies the appropriate learning resources. Knowles (1975) contended that the basis of self-directed learning is that adults learn more purposefully and with greater

motivation rather than passively waiting to be taught. The following comments pertain to self-directed learning.

> In this context, 'learning' does not mean acquiring more information but expanding one's ability to produce the results we truly want in life. Administrator #7

> I believe there is always room for improvement. Even the wisest of teachers will tell you that. Life is ever changing, so I think we all need to make improvements in our learning process of ethics to try and help us adjust to life's many faces. Consumer #14

> The department does not equip the FTO instructor with teaching materials but instead relies upon officers to teach themselves using the text handouts. Consumer #11

> Dilemmas are submitted by the trainees and are grouped into the following categories: discretion (legality), duty (service), honesty, loyalty, and gratuities. The trainees are directed to formulate solutions to the ethical dilemmas. This teaching method serves as an effective way to integrate realistic problems that officers encounter into a formal learning process about ethical behavior. Facilitator # 24

> Require recruits to read a current book that discusses ethics and promotes integrity. Administrator #28

> Sure, no one is too old to learn something new, and improve themselves. It could be a positive thing for the person for what they learn, and what they can now teach someone else. Consumer #9

> I believe that the cognitive outcomes used to measure the degree to which trainees are familiar with principles, facts, techniques, procedures, and processes easily can be achieved via self-directed study, which allows adult learners to take responsibility for their own learning, and standardized tests. Administrator #7

> A majority of officers have mastered much of the mandated training and often work in areas where the training has little job relevancy. Covering this material in a self-directed study program and using the time and resources saved to broaden officers' career development in more challenging and interesting areas would better serve them and their agencies. Administrator #18

Cooperative Learning

Participants provided comments about the benefits of problem-based learning such as case studies and other learning activities. Smith and Waller (1997) stated that cooperative learning can maximize adult learning by requiring students to effectively express one's point of view, and give and receive support from classmates when studying conceptually complex and content-dense information. Utilizing cooperative learning, the participants indicated that they developed skills within a classroom environment necessary to balance and coordinate employment responsibilities, personal relationships, and be contributing members of society.

> Supporting case studies with role-playing allows officers to actually practice the skills and techniques necessary to engage in positive ethics. Administrator #42
>
> I think learning from how ethical dilemmas happen and why. Consumer #48
>
> Specially designed exercises accompany each discussion to encourage meaningful input from all participants. Facilitator #31
>
> We have an exercise in which officers are asked to consider an ethical problem/solution and write their opinions on a topic and then exchange ideas orally. Facilitator #11
>
> We have a discussion of ethical systems that provides not only a procedural framework but also demonstrates that there often is more than one "correct" resolution to a dilemma and more than one way to arrive at the same resolution. Administrator #27
>
> With the assistance of a discussion leader, recruits conduct an ‘ethics audit,’ and as a group, they identify possible ethical problems that they anticipate encountering on the street. Administrator #18
>
> Ethics training has to be done in a participatory environment. You also have to make it comfortable enough so that learners are not afraid to make mistakes but challenging enough to be keep the learned interested. Administrator #43
>
> The class discussions include issues about anger, lust, greed and peer pressure. Facilitator #11

> After the officers submit their dilemmas, the instructor groups the dilemmas so that similar ones are discussed together. One immediate benefit of this grouping exercise is that officers realize a common ground in their ethical concerns, and the method ensures officers that feel strongly enough about an issue offer the dilemma for the class to discuss. Facilitator #24

> After discussing ethical dilemmas, the instructor asks the officers to apply ethical frameworks to the possible solutions. At this point, the instructor lists, describes, and briefly discusses the different ethical systems. Each participant should be able to discuss a resolution of the submitted dilemmas by applying various ethical systems. Facilitator #19

Situated Learning

The participants expressed the need to teach and learn police ethics with a purpose rather than using the traditional delivery of training: topic, timeframe, and measurement of results. Kirshner and Whitson (1997) indicated that situated learning is essentially a matter of creating meaning from the real activities of daily living. Participants described the importance of learning with purpose and meaning and how the job skills they developed reflect the way knowledge is obtained from everyday situations and prior experiences.

> …through the adult learning process by means of everyday situations and showing how bad ethics can turn a good situation bad and a bad situation worse. Facilitator #51

> Law enforcement officer in-service training can move progressively forward with an emphasis on purpose. Purposeful teaching moves away from traditional training systems (characterized by presenting topics in specific time-frames and demonstrations with results measured in multiple-choice test formats) to a systems approach, which aligns all elements of the educational process. Administrator #1

> The training program begins with a discussion of the limitations of external controls on police behavior. Facilitator #31

> A successful training program must first take into consideration some established principles of learning and include a student's past training and experience and his ability to integrate these with his new learning and experiences will materially affect his learning rate. Administrator #1
>
> Primary focus should be on dealing with current, real-life ethical dilemmas. Consumer #29
>
> I recall one comment from an instructor… he would walk you through what others said or wrote about ethics and help you apply it to your circumstances, to real life. Consumer #23
>
> To begin, the instructors define the term 'ethical dilemma' as a situation in which individuals do not know the right course of action and have difficulty doing what they consider to be right. Administrator #6
>
> When doing role-playing, be sure that it is something officers will take seriously like contrived scenarios in the classroom. Consumer #20
>
> …introduce recruits to police ethical dilemmas and study ways to use officer experience and department policy to teach and provide guidance. Consumer #20
>
> The classroom discussion and lecture was the primary mode of teaching, it was very informative and gave students the opportunity to express their opinions of 'What would you do in this situation?' Facilitator #55

CONCLUSION

Participant perspectives included the importance of the professional development of adults by promoting dialogue, reflection, and application consisting with Knowles' (1984) principles of andragogy, which involves the design of an adult learning process based upon experiential learning and problem solving. Knowles' focus with the development of andragogy was the notion of the material being learner centered and the learner being self-directed.

THEME FIVE: ETHICAL INFLUENCES

Categories: Social Environment

Categories: Department Environment

Subcategories: Hiring Process

Many factors can negatively influence police ethics. Recognizing some of the key factors involved is an essential step for improving police ethics training. Sherman (1974) stated that factors such as the decline in moral standards within contemporary society, public perception about the role of police, the media and entertainment industries, a department's organization values, and an individual's values are all significant factors that can negatively influence police ethics in the law enforcement profession. Moreover, Crank and Caldero (2000) indicated that the community-oriented style of policing requires a higher degree of public accountability relevant to the delivery of police services. The following perspectives provided by participants describe societal and organizational factors that influence ethics in the law enforcement profession.

Social Environment

Participants provided perspectives about societal factors that included perks, education, and public expectations, all of which can influence the ethical conduct and work performance of police officers. A social environment includes values and expectations that are generally accepted by a society and that form the basis of cultural traditions, structures, practices, and laws. Fair and Pilcher (1991) stated that societal influences are important in the development of a police officer's sense of right and wrong.

Advanced formal education influences the maturity and professionalism of police officers. The question is whether those positive attributes spill over into the ethical arena. Administrator #25

On the street, police officers are seldom forced to present ethical rationales for their decisions. Some do not like the experience, even in a classroom setting. Yet, others express views suggesting that all police officers could benefit from such training. Administrator #1

It is difficult to teach ethics to officers when they are given so many little perks, like coffee, or lunch. The officer might think that they are deserve more and that they are not paid very well and feel they need to take what is their's. Consumer #48

Life is ever changing, so I think we all need to make improvements in our learning process of ethics to try and help us adjust to life's many faces. Consumer #14

We live and work in a society that appears to have less ethical concern than previous generations. Many of our younger officers are a product of that society. Administrator #42

We must remember at all times that the education and training of law enforcement personnel and all persons in the criminal justice system must always be reasonable, not by our perceptions, but rather from the perceptions of those people that we are called upon to serve and protect. Administrator #7

The training program should begin with a discussion of the limitations of external controls on police behavior. Facilitator #31

If an officer has good ethics, morals, values, and uses good judgment, he/she can not go wrong. Consumer #14

The public wants and expects law enforcement officers to be fair and objective in decision making and applying and enforcing the laws of the land without showing malice, ill will, or favoritism. Administrator #25

A person's ethics are formed by those persons to whom one looks as a role model during one's formative years. If you have a recruit who has been exposed to ethical behavior from parents, teachers, coaches, etc. then this recruit will have an ethical model of behavior that society would consider proper. Facilitator #46

Ethical decisions engender fear - a fear of change in the status quo. People strive to maintain equilibrium in their lives and seldom act in a manner that disrupts this equilibrium. When confronted with an ethical decision, a person's ability to make

> objective decisions often becomes warped by this inherent tendency to maintain equilibrium. Administrator #37
>
> I honestly believe being on campus, being with the officers during their shifts, and interacting with the students/faculty body is the best way to go. With this method you actually see the 'how's and why's' of police work. For example, seeing an officer handle an 18 yr. old student with alcohol versus dealing with your average Joe on the city streets. Consumer #14

Department Environment

Participants offered interesting perspectives about ethical influences within a law enforcement department's environment. O'Malley (1997) asserted that the ethical well-being of a law enforcement department is contingent upon the work environment, and that the effective management of such factors as gratuities, poor leadership, and accountability, can minimize unethical influence upon a department's environment.

> …every now and then when the shit hits the fan and someone does a stupid thing, then the ethics topic pops up. Facilitator #11
>
> The officer must know or be led to know how important ethics is on a personal level for an officer and for their employing department overall. Consumer #49
>
> Organizational transformation requires learning and organizations can only learn through individuals who learn. Individual learning does not guarantee organizational learning (or change). But without it, no organizational learning occurs. Administrator #7
>
> In the department you put what you have learned into motion. Consumer #14
>
> Top leaders must address their agency's ethical problems prior to ethics training being conducted, or it becomes very difficult to tell non-supervisors they must hold themselves accountable for their behavior. Consumer #20
>
> If an organization hires employees who already place loyalty to principle above loyalty toward people, then serious misconduct and unethical practices are much less likely to occur than in departments that ignore these important issues. Administrator #27

> I think it is important to keep ethics in the forefront of every officer's mind. Not just the front line officers but the entire organization. Administrator #43
>
> …new officers should be properly indoctrinated into law enforcement using the most talented officers as mentors and instructors. Administrator #18
>
> You seldom find institutionalized scandals without the FTO program being ineffective. Administrator #7
>
> Implementing the cutting edge of field-training helps to ensure that field trainers are not angry and frustrated. This increases the likelihood of maintaining a positive organizational culture within the patrol division. Facilitator #17

Hiring Process

The selection of new officers is an important consideration for department administrators. As suggested by Grant (2002), significant steps can be taken while performing pre-employment screening of applicants during the hiring process, training new officers through department field-training programs, and providing in-service training to existing officers about department ethical guidelines and expectations. Participants provided comments about the significance of the hiring process.

> Even though the areas of recruitment and hiring are not immediately associated with a mode of teaching police ethics, then it should be. Administrator #27
>
> I believe that a lot of the ethical issues can be detected in the hiring process prior to getting to the training. Agencies could get more in depth with the ways that possible employees have dealt with ethical issues in their personal/professional life prior to getting into law enforcement. Administrator #12
>
> It is imperative that the social and ethical backgrounds, to the extent possible, are explored during the selection (hiring) process. Utilize written tests, polygraphs, psychological testing, etc. and do comprehensive background checks on your most serious candidates. Administrator #37
>
> Police officers are always under the microscope. During the hiring process, a person needs to know the high standards officers are held to and why. Consumer #14

> Spend the effort keeping unethical persons out of the profession by having good pre-employment screening – background checks are very important part of the hiring process. Facilitator #46

CONCLUSION

The challenge to law enforcement administrators and instructors is to become proactive, re-examine current practices, and find ways to incorporate adult learning principles, strategies, and methodologies into training programs relevant to creating an optimum learning environment for adults. Doing so is the key to more effective training programs that, in turn, enhance the law enforcement profession and its goal of improving service to the public. Likewise, the hiring process was mentioned by participants as an important consideration for teaching police ethics and managing the ethical behavior of officers. Police agencies should always try to hire the best possible applicant for the job.

THEME SIX: PREFERRED MODES USED TO TEACH POLICE ETHICS

Categories: Administrator Preference

Categories: Facilitator Preference

Categories: Consumer Preference

Categories: Multiple Modes

Participants in this study provided comments describing the value of each of the five modes used to teach police ethics: case study, role-playing, video, lecture, and text/publication. The focus of theme six was to address the final question posed to each participant, that is, what preferred mode of teaching would provide an optimum

experience for adult learners during the training process of police officers in the higher education law enforcement profession. As described by Kennedy (2003), if law enforcement training is to be more effective, then the concepts of adult learning principles must be recognized and applied. Likewise, the IACP Ad Hoc Committee on Police Image and Ethics (1997) indicated that any attempt to incorporate training within the law enforcement profession must be facilitated within the framework of an adult learning environment.

Preferred Modes

Participant perspectives regarding adult learning included comments about each of the five modes used for teaching police ethics (case study, role-playing, video, lecture, and text/publication). Table 26 provides participant perspectives about modes used to teach police ethics. To avoid duplication of frequency, each multiple mode response provided by participants was categorized per specific mode group.

Table 19: Interview Data - Preferred Modes of Participants

	Participant Role				
Preferred Modes	Administrator	Facilitator	Consumer	Frequency	Percent
Case Study	8	6	10	24	28%
Role Playing	9	2	8	19	23%
Videos	6	4	7	17	20%
Lecture	2	5	6	13	15%
Texts	4	2	6	12	14%
Total	29	19	37	5	100%

Participants indicated that case study (28%) was the preferred mode for teaching police ethics. Consumers (officers) preferred case study over any of the other modes. Such a finding supports the perspective of consumers (91%) who previously mentioned in survey question #13 that there was a need to re-examine current teaching practices and find ways to incorporate adult learning principles, strategies, and methodologies into police ethics-training programs. The following information includes the participant perspectives regarding preferred modes to teach police ethics in higher education law enforcement.

Administrator Preference

The administrator (chief/academy director) participant role indicated that the role-playing mode was the preferred choice, followed closely by the case study mode. Pollack and Becker (1995) advocated the use of role-playing and asserted that it compels adult learners to participate in a meaningful analysis of ethical dilemmas and provides a practical approach for transitioning what is learned into the fieldwork of policing.

> Role-playing allows officers to actually practice the skills and techniques necessary to engage in positive ethics. Administrator #42
>
> Role-playing exercises reinforce the discussion that takes place in each class. Administrator #18
>
> More role-playing in the academy. Administrator #54
>
> I believe role-playing or scenario training works best with the adult learner. Administrator #43
>
> I believe that… role-playing exercises can give officers a realistic view of work situations they may face and supply them with the tools needed to resolve dilemmas. Administrator #1
>
> I believe that role-playing… would be most beneficial. Administrator #12

> … role-play scenarios should be used to teach officers how to deal with stressful dilemmas and temptations. Administrator #13
>
> I believe that case studies, particularly war-stories… can give officers a realistic view of work situations they may face and supply them with the tools needed to resolve dilemmas. Administrator #1
>
> The case studies mode is our academy preference. Administrator #6
>
> I believe that case studies demonstrate real world issues and consequences. Administrator #42

Facilitator Preference

The facilitators (department FTO/academy instructor) indicated that the case study mode was the preferred choice. McKeachie (2005) stated that use of the case study would enable officers to develop ethical principles essential to performing police work.

> Our training method uses ethical dilemmas (case studies) often experienced by officers to inject realism… Facilitator #24
>
> I would prefer case studies. Facilitator #51
>
> Case studies… are likely best. Facilitator #46
>
> We use officer dilemmas (case studies) as a teaching tool. Facilitator #24

Consumer Preference

The consumer (officer) participant role also indicated that the case study mode was the preferred choice. Sherman (1978) indicated that teaching police ethics is amenable to many different methods including the use of case study.

> We like to hear and discuss the war stories, preferably the instructor's, or other cases familiar to us heard in the media. Consumer #29
>
> I prefer case studies… because you can see how other officers handled the "real life" situation. Consumer #47

> Our department has attempted to use a variety of teaching methods so as not to rely solely on a lecture format - but rather to use… cases studies related to our officers. Consumer #49
>
> … of the teaching modes mentioned above - primarily war stories (case studies)… Consumer #49
>
> … relying on an instructor's war stories (case studies) may be the next best thing. Consumer #23
>
> Case study. Consumer #48

MULTIPLE MODES

Participants provided comments about how using multiple modes was valuable to the adult learning process. Kennedy (2003) stated that for an optimum adult learning experience to occur, instructors should use a variety of teaching techniques. Consumers (officers) overwhelmingly expressed (51%) a preference to learn police ethics using multiple modes compared to administrators (27%) and facilitators (22%). Table 27 provides participant perspectives about multiple modes used to teach police ethics.

Table 20: Multiple Modes

Participant Role n=16	Multiple Modes	Case Study	Role Playing	Videos	Lecture	Texts	Frequency	Percent
Administrator	6	5	5	4	1	1	16	27%
Facilitator	4	4	2	3	2	2	13	22%
Consumer	6	6	6	6	6	6	30	51%
Total	16	15	13	13	9	9	59	100%

The case study mode was, again, the preference of all multiple mode responses.

> In teaching ethics I believe that multiple modes of instruction are valuable. Consequently, I would not rule out case studies, publications or training videos. Administrator #7
>
> A combination of the teaching modes mentioned above - primarily war stories, lectures, and videos - some role-playing as well. Consumer #49
>
> Case studies, Role playing, Lecture, Training Videos, Text. Facilitator #55
>
> I believe they all would be a good source of information, because each officer might get something out of one of these teachings better than one other officer, because everyone learns in different ways. Consumer #9
>
> The teaching format should be case studies, role-playing, videos. Administrator #25
>
> I believe all of the above should be incorporated into police ethics training because of the diversity of each method. Consumer #14
>
> I believe that role-playing, case studies and videos would be most beneficial. Administrator #12

CONCLUSION

Participants of this study have identified that a gap exists in creating a positive learning environment and that improving the adult learning process is relative to a preferred mode to teach police ethics. Namely, that each of the five modes described in this study are beneficial for complimenting the approach to the adult learning process.

DOCUMENT ANALYSIS

The need to triangulate data can be facilitated by a review of relevant instructional documents. Documents obtained for this study were analyzed to determine the preferred modes used to teach police ethics. The documents selected for inclusion in this study included academy syllabi, handouts, and curricula; campus police department field-

training modules and policies. A total of two law enforcement academies and four university police departments provided documents regarding police ethics. The researcher received documents from administrators and facilitators, but none from consumers. The researcher determined that department policy and mission statements related to ethics training, and the law enforcement academy curricula were the most relevant documents. Subsequently, each document was read, studied, and coded similar to the process developed for the interviews. Table 28 categorizes the documents submitted, specific to a university police department or law enforcement training academy, that were analyzed for purposes of this study.

Table 21: Description of Documents Analyzed

Documents	Campus Police (n=4)	Academy (n=2)	Frequency
Code of Ethics	4	2	6
Ethics Curricula	2	2	4
Mission Statements	2	0	2
Policy	3	0	3
FTO Programs	2	0	2
Total	13	4	17

The researcher was disappointed with the response despite requesting documents on three different occasions; however, such a deficiency was not surprising. The literature review found that there remains insufficient ethics training for officers. Dees' (1996) indicated that while ethics training is "gaining ground" (p. 60), the law enforcement

profession still needs to improve upon its commitment of developing stronger educational curriculums at both the academy and department levels. A comprehensive review of the documents used to support instruction that were submitted to the researcher differed from each academy and department. This provided another indication, as suggested by the literature, that there remains a gap regarding an optimum learning experience for officers and instructors of police ethics and a commitment to teach police ethics. Table 29 provides an overview of participant preference of documents relevant to the modes used to teach police ethics.

Table 22: Documents Related to Modes

Preferred Modes	Participant Role			
	Administrator	Facilitator	Consumer	Frequency
Case Study	2	1	0	3
Role Playing	2	0	0	2
Videos	0	1	0	1
Lecture	2	2	0	4
Texts	4	2	0	6
Total	10	2	0	16

ACADEMY DOCUMENTS

The training of police recruits, or new officers, is a vital component in establishing ethical policing. Hyams (1991) asserted that many times the police academy is the first and only time officers are exposed to ethics training, and that it is as equally

important to nurture the ethical development of officers as it is with any other type of training. The researcher, however, was able to obtain only two police academy curricula. Table 30 provides an overview of each academy document, referred to as lesson plans A and B, which describe the following areas: course description, training objectives, instructional methods, and class hours.

Table 23: Academy Lesson Plans

Course Outline	Lesson Plan A	Lesson Plan B
Course Description	The purpose of this block of instruction is to address and introduce principles of professional and ethical conduct.	This session will address ethics within the law enforcement profession.
Training Objectives	Define the law enforcement role in the community. Discuss the concept of professionalism. Describe factors or influences present in making a law enforcement decision.	In behavioral terms, discuss steps involved in critical thinking to avoid ethical dilemmas and develop decision-making ability; discuss what ethics are
Instructional Mode	Lecture	Lecture
Hours Taught	Four (4)	Two (2)

Training Objectives

The objectives for both lesson plans introduced principles of ethics related to fairness, morals, and decision-making within the context of the course descriptions. Vicchio (1997) stated that if academy ethics training is to be effective, the teaching should include a balance of practice and theory while emphasizing critical thinking skills and problem-solving techniques. The following information included in lesson plan A

provided expectations to adult learners and served as a strong foundation for officer training:

> As law enforcement officers, we have to abide by the moral codes or 'rules' of society in which we work. This is classified as 'professional ethics.' Generally, morality is the measure of conduct and ethics the study of morals. People are thought of as 'moral in character' or 'doing unethical deeds.' Regardless of the term used, what we are referring to is an individual's behavior and how it affects others. Plan A (Academy) p. 7

Discussions outlined in each lesson plan indicated that officers are provided with the opportunity to understand the value or moral basis of their action when deciding what is right or wrong when confronted with the daily challenges of police work. Regarding the training objectives, aspects of decision-making, concepts of professionalism, and an emphasis on critical thinking were well defined within both lesson plans.

Class Environment

Merriam (1999) stated that considerations for adult development and learning include socio-cultural and integrative perspectives on development. While the most common reason for adults to place themselves in a learning environment is a life-changing event, once in that environment, there are factors that affect the learning experience – including the negative influences of instructors. For example, upon further review of lesson plan B, language on the cover page regarding student participation included "without reference." During the interview process, the researcher posed a question to each academy facilitator about the meaning of the term "without reference." One facilitator stated, "It means the trainees s. s. l. – sit, shut their mouth, and listen." Another facilitator stated that, "Little interaction occurs within the short hour of ethics training; we simply advise officers about what the code of ethics are, provide a few handouts, and lecture some of the do's and don'ts of police work." Such responses from

facilitators validate the ethics instruction gap recognized by the IACP report of the need to develop training programs that provide an optimum experience for adult learners.

Hours of Training

Each lesson plan provided the number of hours of ethics training instruction, four and two respectively. One major finding of the IACP Ethics Training in Law Enforcement (1997) report was that the amount of time devoted to ethics training was insufficient, and that the number of hours remained insignificant in terms of a recognized need for more quality ethics training. Pollock and Becker (1995) also mentioned concern about whether the academy curriculum block of ethics instruction is scheduled in a timely manner that allows officers to focus on the ethics topic given other more formidable training interests such as firearms, driving, arrest, search, and seizure. Facilitators provided the following perspectives regarding time involved for teaching police ethics:

> The state law enforcement commission mandates a minimum of 2 hours of instruction. Facilitator #31
>
> …when you have only so many weeks to fit hundreds of hours of training into the academy curriculum you have to prioritize how things are done. Facilitator #35
>
> I wish there was time… I am not sure there is also enough interest. Facilitator #11
>
> We have to get through the training modules quickly, in a timely fashion, teaching ethics is not rocket science and I do not want it to absorb more time than necessary and take time away from more important officer safety training issues. Facilitator #19

Lecture Mode

McKeachie (2005) asserted that the adult learning process should include class lectures. He also emphasized the need for instructors to listen and treat students with respect and to teach them to learn and think, “While post-college learning will probably

involve fewer formal lectures than characterizes most college learning, one still learns a great deal by listening to supervisors and fellow workers" (p. 53). Table 31 provides an overview of academy lesson plans A and B, which indicated that lecture was the preferred mode of instruction and prescribed additional information for facilitators to follow:

Table 24: Lesson Plans A and B

Lesson Plan A: Facilitator Instructions	Lesson Plan B: Facilitator Instructions
Method of instruction: facilitation by lecture.	Instructional method: lecture.
When introducing ethics, the instructor should advise the students how to deal with situations that may destroy their careers or lives.	Lecture format: A. Opening statement B. Training Objectives C. Reason for teaching
The instructor who teaches this block should read Jocelyn M. Pollack-Byrne's book, Ethics in Crime and Justice, Dilemmas, and Decisions, Third Edition, 1997 and describe to students the basic concepts discussed in this block of instruction on ethics.	Instructors should inform students that the lessons learned within this block can be applied to all Basic Law Enforcement Training (BLET) topics and taken with them into their professional careers.
To promote and facilitate law enforcement professionalism, instructors are encouraged to create dilemmas.	As described in the introduction of the lesson plan, it is important that the instructor advise new officers about the expectations and responsibilities they have accepted by choosing this profession.

Lieb (1991) mentioned that lecture can stimulate adult learners and advocated that motivation and reinforcement are essential requirements for meeting the needs of adult learners. This finding was supported by the survey data (68%) and interview data (50%) that facilitators preferred the lecture mode.

> Lecture is a convenient and timely manner of providing training. Facilitator #35
>
> Our lecture format consists of several hours of introductory material on ethics, ethical codes, morals, and value systems. Facilitator #17
>
> The lecture mode… is a good approach in lieu of other more popular training topics. Facilitator #31
>
> Given the higher priorities of department training needs, the lecture mode helps me get done faster – besides officers just want to get this stuff over with and get on to firearms or drug seizure training. Facilitator # 17
>
> …lecture should be used to teach officers how to deal with stressful dilemmas and temptations. Administrator #13

The lecture mode, while convenient for instructors, may not be the most demonstrable way to teach police ethics. The lecture mode was least preferred by consumers (58%), and only 15% of consumers (table 19, p. 117) that were interviewed preferred lecture as well. Lecture tends to be instructor centered rather than learner centered as espoused by Knowles (1984), and lecture may hinder the creation of a climate in which adults can "most fruitfully learn" (Merriam, 2001, p.7). Fittingly, as two administrators mentioned during the interviews:

> Many do not care for lectures. Administrator #1
>
> Ethics is often presented in a lecture format which is close to being the least, if not the least way, for adults to learn. Administrator #25

In summary, based on the document data, a majority of facilitators preferred the lecture mode to teach ethics, while a majority of consumers (officers) preferred lecture mode the least. The differing perspectives about the lecture mode and its use to teach police ethics has been consistent with the findings of the literature review which yielded very little consensus regarding the best practice to teach police ethics. Consequently, this

finding indicates that the lecture mode may inhibit the transference of information and minimize meaning and application.

Department Documents

Once officers are on duty in a department, clear and consistent policies and procedures are essential to provide them information on what is expected from them, what are the acceptable limits of discretion, and what means and methods may or may not be permissible in performing the job. Cordner and Sheehan (1999) stated that such policies and procedures, well-drafted and evenhandedly enforced, are essential in establishing acceptable boundaries for officer behavior. They also help to develop performance criteria against which personnel can be evaluated, held accountable, and if necessary, disciplined. Additional documents provided to the researcher included rules and regulations about ethical standards and conduct prescribed in a policy statement mode or commonly referred to as a general order. Mortenson and Gesa (1996) indicated that police ethics training is a department's opportunity to establish acceptable ethical behavior by providing policies regarding ethics-related issues such as accepting gratuities to falsifying documents. Within the context of those documents reviewed by the researcher, two prevailing themes emerged during the analysis process: 1) a consistent reference to the law enforcement codes of ethics, and 2) language that emphasized adherence to and compliance with rules and regulations.

Codes of Ethics

As a component of teaching police ethics, administrators and facilitators mentioned the importance of a code of ethics as an instructional aid. Cooksey (1991) stated that the ethics training provided in a department is an opportunity for officers to

clarify standards of conduct and work expectations. Unfortunately, such a comment further illustrates the deficiency and lack of emphasis for teaching ethics specific to actions commonly encountered in police work. Contextually, the law enforcement code of ethics is a document prescribed by the International Association of Chief of Police (IACP). The IACP code of ethics, originally written in 1957 and later revised in 1989 (Appendix D), is meant to govern the conduct of its members. The IACP code of ethics is universally recognized within the police profession as a reference to develop a conceptual ethical framework for officers to follow. Delattre (2002) indicated that rules-based ethics is the most widely recognized and utilized approach by law enforcement administrators, and that the law enforcement code of ethics is an example of the rules-based philosophy. Department documents provided to the researcher regarding codes of ethics emphasized its importance as follows:

- *The following is the Law Enforcement Code of Ethics* adopted by the International Association of Chiefs of Police. Our Police Division is a member of this organization, and each officer of this Division shall adhere to the provisions of this oath.
- *To establish a code of ethics* to be subscribed and adhered to by all members of the… department.
- The following *document* is attached for your review… work collectively as members of… to hold each other accountable… *the IACP Code of Conduct*.

Interestingly, one department administrator provided this perspective from a note that accompanied its department document,

> In speaking with our training sergeant, she said all we train on as far as ethics is the standard Law Enforcement Code of Ethics used throughout the United States.

> We believe it is a very important topic, but our actions are not followed by our beliefs. Thus, we do not have much to add as far as training material documents. Administrator #7

Davis (1991) advocated the use of a code of conduct to teach police ethics. He recognized that a well-developed code of ethics provides officers with a moral support system, and it is an instructive aspect of the police culture for preventing undesirable behavior. Participants were asked during the interview process about the importance of a code of ethics as an instructional aid. The lecture mode and the use of the law enforcement code of ethics as an instructional document supports the emergent theme that the code of ethics is a document consistently utilized during the lecture mode of teaching police ethics by both department and academy facilitators:

> During the lecture process, instructors provide trainees with the law enforcement code of ethics which consists of ethical mandates law enforcement officers use to perform their duties. Administrator #6

> Our department regulations include the police code of conduct that works in conjunction with the law enforcement code of ethics. We provide this to officers out of the academy and using a lecture format do so for in-service department training on a periodic basis. Facilitator #11

> Lectures should include codes of ethics as guidelines…. Administrator #18

> Our lecture format consists of several hours of material on ethical codes…. Facilitator #17

> The law enforcement code of ethics represents the basis for ethical behavior in law enforcement…and should always be administered during the lecture process when teaching. Administrator #37

> Ethical statements about codes of conduct provided during class lecture… encourage law enforcement officers to become members of an ethical profession. Administrator #28

> During the lecture process, we establish the purpose of having a formal code of ethics and how…it can provide guidance and clear standards of conduct for police officers. Facilitator #50

According to O'Malley (1997), establishing a formal code of ethics represents an essential first step for achieving individual and organizational accountability. Several administrators and facilitators supported the emergent theme that a code of ethics is a document consistently utilized for teaching and establishing policy:

> …police codes of ethics serve as guidelines to protect professionals from themselves, as well as from those who, they perceive, abuse the power of their profession. Administrator #18
>
> The law enforcement code of ethics…represents the basis for ethical behavior in law enforcement. Administrator #37
>
> Documents such as codes of ethics provide the guidelines for law enforcement personnel…. Administrator # 40
>
> As part of their training…a discussion about police professionalism and the code of ethics. Facilitator #17
>
> It also is not surprising that officers view a code of ethics as important…in class. Facilitator #24
>
> …instructors provide trainees with the law enforcement code of ethics which consists of ethical mandates law enforcement officers use to perform their duties. Administrator # 6
>
> Our department regulations include the police code of conduct that works in conjunction with the law enforcement code of ethics. Facilitator #17
>
> …we establish the purpose of having a formal code of ethics and how it represents an essential first step for achieving accountability, and that it can provide guidance and clear standards of conduct for police officers. Facilitator #50

Each of the six agencies that provided documents to the researcher also included a copy of the IACP law enforcement code of ethics. Donahue (1992) acknowledged the importance of the code of ethics by advocating the formulation of an applicable code of ethics that promotes ethical behavior through the bureaucratic influence of the department.

Policy and Rules

Another document analysis finding concerned an adherence to department policies, rules, and regulations. The formulation of policies and regulations for a police department has an important effect on not only the department but also individual police officers and the community in general. According to Cordner and Sheehan (1999), the emergent conceptual framework of law enforcement policies are based upon what would be described as sanction avoidance; that is, officers comply with department expectations (policy, rules, regulations) or risk being subject to disciplinary action. The following illustrates common language found in the department documents pertaining to rules and policy orders about ethics:

- Members shall not knowingly...
- Members shall not authorize...
- Officers shall subscribe to the following…
- New employees will be instructed in the rules of conduct.
- Officers will rigidly adhere to the following…
- Police officers do not…
- You will be expected personally to read, review and adhere to the information…
- The rules of conduct will be reviewed periodically for relevance, timeliness, adequacy, and completeness.
- Employees are responsible for reporting other employees whose behavior is clearly illegal.
- Each member of the police department will be required to conform…
- It is the policy of this law enforcement department to establish proactive procedures to prevent corruption…

While the researcher was not able to observe ethics training class sessions, the information retrieved from the documents did raise the question of whether the sanction avoidance philosophy ascribed by department and academy documents can be linked to the lecture mode of instruction – an ideal topic for future research. Such an approach may explain why facilitators (instructors) who teach police ethics have a difficult time creating a positive learning environment as illustrated by the response to statement 11 of the survey instrument and additional perspectives offered by consumers (officers):

> I would guess that at this point every police department in the United States has an official policy against taking a free cup of coffee. My question is this: How many of you abide by that policy? I never did. If they did not charge me for the coffee, I left a tip big enough to cover the difference. If they would not charge me for a meal, I left a tip big enough to cover that too. I did not get up and say, "Sorry madam, I can not take free food." There is no moral dilemma in free food. Pay for it. It's that simple. It only becomes a dilemma when you see your sergeant or maybe even your chief taking gratuities that you know she has told you not to take. Who do you report that to? Consumer #29

> If you really want to teach ethics to cops or law enforcement students, talk about the real problems cops face. Like, what do you do when your partner lies in his police report or loses control and really hurts someone? Most ethics classes will tell you that it is a simple decision: you turn them in. Really? What about the time that partner saved your life? Or the time that same partner put her own life on the line to save a citizen's life? Are you going to run to IA (internal affairs) and turn them in? I do not think so. It would take a pretty depraved or criminal act for most cops to step up and report to internal affairs or civilian review, and in those cases they should. I am not saying you should not do something about the smaller things, I am saying you should be prepared from ethics training to make the right decision about what to do, whether it's stepping in and stopping the behavior or taking it to the boss or IA. For the most part, I do not think we do a very good job of that. Consumer #9

Based upon officer testimonies, the classroom environment is not an optimal learning experience when instructors posture a lecture based upon sanction avoidance as the primary conceptual framework for teaching police ethics. The need to improve the adult learning environment of police officers regarding the preferred modes to teach police

ethics validates the disparity between how facilitators teach and how consumers prefer to be taught.

Values and Practice

Two additional premises emerged from the document analysis. Teaching ethics must take into consideration the values on which a police department operates, as well as the practices it follows. Nichols (1997) stated that a department's values must incorporate the cultural expectations, desires, and preferences of the university or college, and that to be significant, the campus community and members of its police department should recognize those values. The following are examples from department documents that pertain to the values and practices expected from officers:

- For the most part, the *community's trust* and confidence in the police department will be earned by the *integrity* of its police officers. (Document #2, University Police Department, p. 1)
- All officers are expected to conduct themselves in a manner that is *fair, ethical and legal* and which exhibits a sense of *duty and honor* for the position entrusted to them. (Document #1, University Police Department, p. 2)
- The administration of law and order is based upon the *ideal of justice for all and the preservation of constitutional rights.* The fulfillment of that ideal requires a commitment by police officers to protect citizens and to strive to ensure that citizens will be treated with *respect, dignity and fairness*. (Document #1, University Police Department, p. 2)
- As members of the law enforcement profession…recognizes the significance of serving the public. As such, all employees are *duty bound in their commitment to provide excellent services*. (Document #3, University Police Department, p. 1)

- The University community has entrusted (department name) to exercise its authority with *discretion, good judgment, respect* and a commitment to *honesty, justice, and diversity*. (Document #2, University Police Department, p. 1)
- Each member strives to build upon the *trust and confidence* of the students, staff, faculty, and general public. (Document #3, University Police Department, p. 1)

Kleinig (1996) asserted that a department's philosophy of policing and its commitment to standards integrity, accountability, and communication are foundations for nurturing public trust and exemplifying standards of law enforcement professionalism.

Mission Statements

The most general statement of the purpose of a police organization is usually its mission statement. Dantzker (1999) indicated that a mission statement typically expresses the most important values that guide the department and the overall philosophy of the agency. Of the three campus police department mission statements provided to the researcher, each included a departmental philosophy of policing using the following terminology:

- Stating in clear terms what a department believes in...
- In broad terms the goals of the department are...
- Reflecting the community's expectations of the department as follows...
- Serving as a basis for developing policies and procedures.
- Establishing the parameters for organizational flexibility.
- Providing the basis for operational strategies.
- Setting the framework for officer performance.
- Establishing the framework for departmental evaluation.

Several administrators also provided perspectives about the importance of department values and the mission statement as a useful reference for the ethics training process:

> The development of a set of values for a police department does not necessarily entail a lengthy list. Rather, a few values, when taken together, can embody what the department considers to be important. For example, if the department wants to create a service oriented culture, then that desire should be reflected in its set of values. Regardless, ethics training should include the values outlined in a department's mission statement. Administrator #40
>
> Values permeate a department, and reflect in its policy-making decisions, written into its rules and procedures, incorporated into its training and providing the foundation for its goals. The values of a department are important because they set the standards for the quality of its performance. Administrator #43
>
> Any organization that overvalues the pride and tradition of their university to the exclusion of values will have a difficult time providing police support to the campus. In higher education, police departments have to learn how to operate differently. Campus chiefs must embrace a philosophy of policing that balances the values of the university and purpose of the department – it should reflect in its mission statement and policy. Administrator #42
>
> Ethics training can have a positive impact in addressing negative relations between police and the university community. Police training should include a department's mission statement and the training program should incorporate the values of the department. Administrator #54

Mortenson and Gesa (1996) stated that the importance of teaching police ethics includes establishing the behavioral expectations prescribed by a department's values and policies regarding ethics-related topics. In one interesting department document, an administrator (chief) does exactly what Mortenson and Gesa (1996) described by also including a cover letter that described and defined ethical expectations as follows:

- Mission - Why does what we do matter? Mission defines the purpose and meaning of our work. An organization's mission or purpose is the answer to the question "why?"

- Values - What principles and beliefs does the department embrace? Everyone and every organization have values. The question is are they clear - known to you and to other key stakeholders. If so, are you living according to them?
- Vision - What business are we in? What's possible? Vision defines a desired future and helps guide all who accept and understand it.
- Goals - What specific tasks does an organization pursue? Goals hold an organization accountable for its actions and are a measure for success and improvement.

Souryal (1992) contended that the goal of police ethics training should include more than an awareness of ethical issues from a law enforcement code of ethics, and that enabling competence should involve a comprehensive approach of information to promote ethical awareness and nurture complicity to the values of a department.

MODES OF TEACHING

The compilation of research data has revealed that administrators and consumers preferred the case study mode to teach police ethics, while facilitators preferred the lecture mode. Table 25 provides a complete perspective of the modes preferred by each participant role. Administrators and consumers preferred the case study mode, while facilitators preferred the lecture mode.

Table 25: Preferred Modes Per Participant Role

Administrator	Survey	Interviews	Documents	Preferred Modes
Case Study	19	8	2	29
Role Playing	16	9	2	27
Videos	13	6	0	19
Texts	5	4	4	13
Lecture	2	2	2	6
Facilitator	Survey	Interviews	Documents	Preferred Modes
Lecture	11	5	2	18
Videos	6	4	1	11
Case Study	4	6	1	11
Texts	6	2	2	10
Role Playing	2	2	0	4
Consumer	Survey	Interviews	Documents	Preferred Modes
Case Study	16	10	0	26
Videos	15	7	0	22
Role Playing	12	8	0	20
Texts	7	6	0	13
Lecture	6	6	0	12

The compilation of all modes from each data source (survey, interviews, and documents) indicated that case study was the preferred mode for teaching police ethics in higher

education law enforcement. Table 26 indicates the total modes preferred from each data source.

Table 26: Preferred Modes Per Data Source

Modes	Survey (n=55)	Interviews (n=35)	Documents (n=6)	Frequency
Case Study	39	24	3	66
Videos	34	17	1	52
Role Playing	30	19	2	51
Lecture	19	13	4	36
Texts	18	12	6	36

SUMMARY

Within the context of this study, the challenge has been to examine the current practices of teaching police ethics, and find ways to incorporate adult learning principles into training programs relevant to creating an optimum learning environment for adults. The categories of each theme provided perspectives about police ethics. The findings of this study have indicated that, where possible, educators should base new learning on the previous experience of the learner, and instructors should not ignore what their students already know. Knowles (1984) and Sherman (1999) have indicated that there is a need to focus more on the process of teaching police ethics and less on content. The researcher maintains that adults enter learning activities with a greater amount of life experiences to which they can relate new learning. Instructors should avoid placing officers in the position of simply being passive recipients of facts, and clearly inform officers

concerning the content to be covered and the standards by which learning performance can be evaluated. As Metz (1986) stated, instructors should use teaching techniques, such as group discussions, symposiums, debates, demonstrations, role-plays, and group projects, where learners have an opportunity to draw upon their previous experiences and to share them in cooperative interaction with others. The promotion of problem-based experiential learning such as case studies and learning activities that frame the context of the course will develop a teaching narrative that ensures shared meaning. This information will not only influence the adult learning process but will also give officers clearly defined goals for direction in the training program.

The training of police personnel is most effective when instructors utilize the most beneficial teaching resources that promote a positive adult learning environment. Thus, one of the greatest incentives for continued development is the sense that one is making progress. The researcher believes that increased competence feeds into increased motivation for learning, and increased motivation leads to increased practice and competence. The life experiences and perspectives that adults bring to the classroom can provide a rich reservoir for learning. Livingston (2004) indicated that police training serves three purposes: to prepare officers to act appropriately in a broad spectrum of situations, to enhance productivity and effectiveness, and to foster cooperation and unity of purpose within a department. Optimum work performance requires that the mode of instruction have some immediate application for officers. In recognizing the value of officer development, it is essential that police ethics training utilize teaching modes that compliment the adult learning process. The findings of this study have indicated that case study is the preferred mode to teach police ethics. Chapter 5 will now provide recommendations for best practices related to police ethics training in the higher education law enforcement profession.

Chapter 5: Recommendations and Conclusion

This study has identified and documented the preferred modes used to teach police ethics in higher education law enforcement. Chapter 1 outlined the need for this inquiry citing ethical issues prevalent in the law enforcement profession. While there is a paucity of research data on the subject of police ethics and ethics training, the current body of related literature (Chapter 2) was explored. It was determined that there remains insufficient research about the modes of instruction used to teach police ethics. The literature review revealed several typical modes of delivery used to teach police ethics. No consensus was found as to which one is preferred among case study, lectures, role-playing, texts, and videos. The researcher decided to conduct a study to examine the perspectives of administrators (police chiefs/academy directors), facilitators (department FTO/academy instructors), and consumers (officers) regarding the modes used to teach police ethics. Chapter 3 described the data collection method and analysis processes (survey, interviews, and documents). This study was designed around the following research questions:

- What are the preferred modes used to teach police ethics in higher education law enforcement?
- Can understanding the preferred modes to teach ethics provide a useful baseline for creating an optimum adult learning process for police officers?

Chapter 4 presented the findings from the survey, interview, and document analysis related to the modes used to teach police ethics in higher education law enforcement. Chapter 5 provides a discussion of the findings and recommendations for practice as well as implications for future research.

DISCUSSION OF DATA

The data revealed a number of interesting insights about teaching police ethics and provided a broad understanding of the issues regarding the adult learning process. During the course of this research study, the researcher captured data that revealed relevant to the topic. After the data were analyzed, individual themes were created and described in Chapter 4. It is important, however, to note that each theme did not occur in isolation, but rather was part of the broader context of teaching police ethics. As the study of perspectives revealed through the data details about the modes of teaching police ethics, it became clear that there were distinct preferences related to the delivery of instruction and the adult learning process.

Each participant in the study (administrator, facilitator, and consumer) was requested to provide his/her perspective about case study, lecture, role-playing, texts, and videos. The findings of this study answered the research questions regarding the preferred mode for teaching police ethics – *case study* and that utilizing principles of adult learning can improve the learning environment of teaching police ethics. The case study and role-playing modes of instruction offer a balanced approach for teaching police ethics by using realistic ethical dilemmas and activity-based interaction. Both modes incorporate logic-based guidelines for developing an officer's decision-making process. All of the other issues that surfaced from this study involved questions of leadership, the hiring process, and the difficulty of creating a positive learning environment.

Adult Learning Process

In providing police ethics training, the researcher believes it is important to understand the differences between a lecture mode of teaching and concepts of the active learning format. The research study uncovered that facilitators (department FTO/academy

instructor) were advocates of the lecture mode and the law enforcement code of ethics was a document commonly used as a lecture reference resource. In fact, Davis (1991) regarded a code of ethics as a legalistic instructive approach, "A code of ethics can help prevent undesirable behavior only if police think of themselves as professionals in the morally interesting sense" (p. 25). The research, however, indicated that consumers (officers) did not prefer the lecture mode. Fair and Pilcher (1991) advocated that students be instructed with the ability to reason through and explain their decision (case study/role-playing), rather than to adhere to a code of conduct. "The emphasis in our view, then, is not on any specific result, but on the use of the process" (p. 38). The researcher believes that the lecture mode assumes that the listener knows what is expected, involvement of the listener is selective, and the listener is provided with little or no opportunity for feedback. Whereas, in the active learning format the instructor tells the listener exactly what is expected and how responses are to be made - feedback is almost constant. Likewise, the researcher contends that the exclusive use of lecture to teach police ethics is an insufficient mode of instruction. An ethical standard based upon an adherence to a code of ethics administered by facilitators simply does not provide an optimum adult learning experience. Instead, the facilitator should actively engage officers in the learning process, make the content relevant to their jobs, and utilize the modes preferred to teach police ethics, as described in this study, when preparing for the professional development of police officers. Thus, teaching police ethics must be reality-based and interactive and involve more than just a simple discussion of integrity, codes of conduct, or department rules. Teaching ethics should be candid and involve a free discussion of the potential problems, stressors, and temptations that campus police officers face and effects on one's personal life.

Another research study finding related to the adult learning process revealed that each participant role (administrator, facilitator, and consumer) suggested that current practices for teaching police ethics must be re-examined (survey statement 13), Additionally, there is a need to find ways to incorporate adult learning principles, strategies, and methodologies into police ethics training. Braunstein and Tyre (1992) stated that, "The importance of teaching police ethics is interesting given that the concept of training assumes that what a person is being trained in can be taught" (p. 31). In reference to whether ethics can or should be taught to adult learners, Gilmartin and Harris (1998) indicated the following: "While the training is necessary, its importance becomes diluted or rendered ineffective by the manner in which it is presented" (p. 6). Thus, teaching police ethics should require that instructors integrate adult learning principles in order to accomplish this, especially when the data from this study also indicated that facilitators (instructors) of police ethics had a difficult time maintaining a positive learning environment.

Much of adult learning occurs in an environment involving a variety of training needs. Adult learners need a form of education that recognizes their higher cognitive development, existing knowledge base, and extensive life experiences. Presently, the traditional discipline-based classroom-training environment currently employed during much of the academy instruction may limit student learning. Facilitators in such environments need to be prepared to meet the demands of the law enforcement profession. Expectations for facilitators include being equipped with the delivery skills along with design experience and application of learning theories in a variety of settings (Meyer & Marsick, 2003).

The researcher believes that instructors should approach class participation with an attitude and strategy that keeps officers engaged and provides opportunities for the

instructor to reinforce key points and encourage participants to share their experiences and concerns. Developing an environment of trust and respect by ensuring that the training process is a safe place to discuss personal ideas without criticism can also contribute to an optimum adult learning experience. One of the essential roles of administrators and facilitators of police ethics training programs is to develop the skills of police officers for successful public service. Improving the delivery of police ethics training should be part of an ongoing effort to instill, reaffirm, and institutionalize ethical policing in every law enforcement agency.

This researcher contends that adult law enforcement officers enter learning situations with specific and immediate intentions to apply newly acquired knowledge. Unfortunately, as indicated by Gilmartin and Harris (1998), ethics training for most officers is often misconstrued because of the ineffective manner in which the topic is presented. Based upon Kohlberg's (1981) theory of moral development, the ethics training provided to adult police officers will likely occur at level two (conventional) stage four (law and order morality). As such, the researcher believes that the optimum adult learning experience must include a mode of instruction that has immediate application, emphasizes the process of moral reasoning, and acts as a catalyst for acquiring applicable job knowledge.

SUGGESTIONS FOR OPTIMUM LEARNING

The goal of law enforcement training should be to allow an officer the opportunity to practice knowledge and skills which they need to do their job. Simply put, training is the place where people come to practice their job. The most important outcome of any type of training provided to police officers is to develop the skills necessary to improve upon work performance, rather than to point out incompetence. The

researcher suggests that creating a learning environment that recognizes the needs of adult learners, coupled with an enhancement of motivation to learn, may result in a more positive experience for officers. The benefits of creating an optimum learning environment will support the goal of developing quality police officers, thus improving service to the public. Instructors should communicate what modes will be used to teach, and identify objectives that describe the expected outcomes of the training program. Smith and Waller (1997) asserted that without the cooperative development and practice of social skills within a classroom environment, adult learners are ill-prepared for a world where they will need to skillfully balance and coordinate employment responsibilities, personal relationships, and be contributing members of society. Simply put, most officers like to use their own experiences as a basis for learning. Here is where the move from the traditional pedagogical instruction method (the one-way transfer of knowledge from the instructor to the student) must take place. The andragogical style, which promotes the mutual involvement of the student and instructor in the learning process to help enhance the learning environment, allows officers to learn through observation and interaction. Furthermore, the researcher believes that providing officers with the opportunity to practice what they have learned, through case studies and role-playing, encourages peer interaction and critical thinking, thus generating a more dynamic learning environment.

The researcher espouses that effective teaching is more than imparting knowledge. Teaching should include a demonstrated change in the participants' behavior as sought by the instructor. The outcomes from what is taught must not be just a regurgitation of the information provided but must also include a demonstration of the behaviors required for effective application. Negative ineffective approaches to teaching can be avoided, and an understanding of the preferred modes to teach ethics can make a difference in the adult learning process for police officers. McKeachie (2005) stated that

the cooperative learning experience should include the promotion of problem-based experiential learning such as case studies and learning activities that frame the context of the course and develop a teaching narrative that ensures shared meaning. Recognizing the need to create an optimum learning environment, selecting the preferred mode to teach, and utilizing an evaluation tool are essential ingredients to the success of any training program. In that respect, the following suggestions include information about the process of instructional design that can serve as curriculum objectives for developing future police ethics training programs in higher education law enforcement:

- Create a learning environment where the instruction builds on successful experiences (case study/role-playing), not coercive or demeaning activities.
- Define expected outcomes of the learning experience to officers that will demonstrate how the acquisition of knowledge and skills will occur.
- The class activities should be developed based upon the needs of the learners, such as the use of their experience (case study), teaching to multiple learning styles, and their inclusion in defining how they will be taught.
- Encourage active mental engagement (case study/role-playing) in the learning process, rather than reliance on passive listening (lecture), watching (video training), and reading activities (texts/publications).
- Utilize teaching techniques (case study/role-playing) that are interactive and subject to peer accountability among the consumers (officers). This also allows facilitators the flexibility to modify, if necessary, the content/mode of teaching to ensure optimal learning.

- Provide structured activities (role-playing) that precipitate critical thinking and problem solving; these skills are not subjects to be taught, but processes that facilitators can compel consumers (officers) to be involved in and reflect upon.

Presently, the traditional discipline-based classroom-training environment currently Much of adult learning occurs in an environment involving a variety of training needs. Facilitators in such environments need to be prepared to meet the demands of the law enforcement profession. Expectations for facilitators include being equipped with the delivery skills along with design experience and application of learning theories in a variety of settings (Meyer & Marsick, 2003). In a similar perspective, employed during much of academy instruction may limit student learning. Adult learners need a form of education that recognizes their higher cognitive development, existing knowledge base, and extensive life experiences. Lawler and King (2003) stated that the integrative approach to professional development involves the ability of facilitators to demonstrate multiple methods for the delivery of police ethics information by promoting quality dialogue, reflection, and interaction within the learning environment. Thus, the researcher believes that training is critical in the following areas: stimulating creativity, designing innovative teaching practices (modes of delivery), and focusing on the adult learner. Implementing such change requires a broad range of skills and commitment on the part of the instructor.

Benefits of Case Study

Higher education law enforcement is a specialized profession due in part to the constituents that officers serve and protect – students, faculty, and staff. Brookfield (1986) contended that the teacher-learner relationship could be established through the instructor's recognition of the learner's needs and mutually agreed upon goals and

objectives. The researcher believes that when adults attend a training session, they typically do so in search of knowledge and skills in which they can utilize in their current job. Knowles (1984) advocated that instruction for adults should focus more on the process and less on the content, and that adult-learning programs should capitalize on the experiences of participants while challenging adults to move to increasingly advanced stages of personal development. As indicated by the research data, and based upon Knowles' androgogy theory, teaching police ethics using the case study mode will provide officers with a better understanding of dilemmas and thus nurture an ethical framework to prepare officers for real world situations.

This study indicated that administrators (chief/law enforcement academy director) and consumers (officer) were advocates of the case study mode. Braswell, McCarthy, and McCarthy (1998) stated that case study was the primary teaching tool in police ethics training. "Case study still remains the most effective device for communicating the history and values of the department…an atmosphere of camaraderie between the class and the instructor is established" (p. 101).

Likewise, Braswell, McCarthy, and McCarthy (1988) indicated that the case study mode provides officers with perspectives about the law enforcement profession they are likely to encounter,

> The war stories not only introduce police work as it is experienced by police officers, rather than an abstract ideal, they also introduce the ethics of police work as something different from what the public, or at least the law and the press, might expect. (p. 101)

Generally, asking officers to give examples of ethical dilemmas is not the same as asking them what they believe is the most difficult ethical issue in policing. However, the researcher believes that a clear pattern of responses to case study dilemmas will reveal issues that officers consistently identify as problematic ethical situations. Such case study

scenarios weigh on the minds of many police officers during the developmental phase of an officer's discretionary continuum. Many times, full enforcement of the law is not an option and police will have to use discretion when enforcing the law. The following are examples of case study scenarios created by the researcher which represent real-world dilemmas that campus police officers may be confronted with:

- Cover Me - An officer responds as a backup unit to an alarm at the university athletic department equipment room during spring break. The first officer to the scene insists on writing the report that lists items missing from a room (jerseys, coach's shirts). Several days later, the backup officer sees the first responding officer wearing an item from the equipment room that was burglarized. The officer claims to have "gotten the items on a good deal." Should the officer expose the other's misdeed?
- Personal Misdeeds - While driving a police vehicle on campus, an officer strikes a parking lot bollard. With no witnesses present and wishing to avoid disciplinary action, the officer decides to claim that another car collided with the police cruiser and then fled the scene. This is an example of officers trying to cover up their own wrongdoings by lying or not coming forward when they commit minor misdeeds.
- Self-enrichment - Two officers respond to the scene of an intoxicated female found passed out at the recreation fields. It is 3:00 am and no one else is present. During a search of the purse for identification, the officers find $500 cash. One officer insists that they are entitled to keep the money and it should be split between them.

- Officer Wrongdoing - Working overtime at a campus fraternity party, an officer observes a disturbance on the back patio. Responding to the problem, the officer discovers that the instigator is an extremely intoxicated off-duty officer who refuses to follow instructions. The other party involved claims that the officer assaulted him. The complainant does not know his assailant is a police officer.

The dilemmas indicate that many relatively mundane issues can be problematic for officers. The researcher contends that discussions based on similar dilemmas (case study) can expose officers to recognize ethical issues they may encounter. Facilitators can then inculcate a decision-making framework for officers to utilize when experiencing an ethical dilemma. Decisions regarding whether to enforce a warrant or ticket, what to do in a domestic disturbance, or whether to leave an assignment early are not on the same level as dishonesty or use of deception. Yet, if an ethics course for officers is to be relevant, it must cover these common issues, and the instructor should determine the appropriate manner to analyze the dilemmas.

In reality, however, this researcher has experienced ethics training classes in which role-playing scenarios elicited an array of emotions that may cloud an officer's answer. It is the researcher's belief that the role-playing mode of teaching may also challenge the intellect of officers because of the conflicting answers to the questions: "What should I do?" versus "What will I do?" Pollock and Becker (1995) recommended the role-playing mode to teach police ethics, "We discuss an approach to teaching ethics to a criminal justice audience which allows class participants to submit their own ethical dilemmas and analyze these dilemmas using a philosophical framework" (p. 3). If an officer must choose between two options that are not opposite of one another, selecting an option becomes a matter of choice and not a decision between right and wrong. In

many cases, choosing right over wrong takes courage because officers who make ethical choices are often subject to professional or social ridicule.

RECOMMENDATIONS FOR PRACTICE

This researcher suggests that adults should have as much choice as possible in the availability and organization of learning programs. In addition, the preferred modes identified in this research study to teach police ethics can be most useful when the instructor acts more as a facilitator or resource, rather than a lecturer. Speaking from experience, participants who learn from purposeful teaching tend to become lifelong learners who seek further training and educational opportunities. Such individuals also tend to lean toward modeling these behaviors in their own teaching and professional roles. The traditional discipline-based, classroom-training environment currently utilized during much of academy instruction and in-service (FTO) training may limit student learning. Over the years, this researcher has observed adult learners in the law enforcement profession who simply become resigned to the idea that any perceived push back toward an instructor may warrant discipline. This fosters negativity among peer officers and inhibits open dialogue. Merriam (1999) indicated that consideration of adult development should be based upon design experience and application of learning theories because learning opportunities for adults exist in a variety of settings and situations ranging from the street/home environment to a place of employment.

The conventional level of Kohlberg's (1981) theory of moral development consists of personal choices based upon the consideration of others, the maintenance of positive relations, and the rules of society. Furthermore, Kohlberg (1981) asserted that it was important to prompt adult learners with discussions that would promote the reasonableness of a higher stage of morality and encourage their development in that

direction. Thus, the value of creating an optimum learning environment is contingent upon an understanding of adult learning principles, strategies, and methodologies used to develop training programs. In addition, the researcher contends that it is also important to acknowledge prior education and experiences of adult learners, including the ability to recognize their own skills as lifelong learners.

Irrespective of whether the learning environment is positive, adult law enforcement learners tend to believe that any adversity experienced in the classroom is simply part of the preparation process of becoming a police officer. Most instructors recognize that adult learners need a form of education that promotes higher cognitive development and desire learning outcomes that have some immediacy of application. Crank and Caldero (2000) suggested that ethics instructors should demonstrate a knowledge base learned by enduring the ethical and moral dimensions of police work. Instructors equipped with that experience have a more genuine and credible understanding of the complexities associated with maintaining a positive educational learning environment.

According to Kennedy (2003), adult learners possess a different self-image, more life experiences, the fear of failure, a greater expectation to immediately use learning, a diminished speed and retention of learning, and some basic physical differences that can influence the ability to learn. In an adult learning situation, Kennedy (2003) maintains the following:

> A hallmark of the adult education philosophy is to include learners in the planning and implementation of their learning activities. When possible, law enforcement managers should solicit suggestions from officers through need-assessment surveys and course critiques, as well as appoint officers to serve on training advisory boards. They should avoid placing officers in the position of simply being passive recipients of facts. Adult learning activities should include action and involvement. (p. 2)

The life experiences and perspectives that adults bring to the classroom can provide a rich reservoir for learning. In that respect, the researcher contends that it is important for instructors to create a classroom atmosphere that is informal but provides learning activities with a greater amount of life experiences to which officers can relate. Instructors should use modes of teaching such as case studies, group discussions, debates, demonstrations, and role-play where learners have an opportunity to actively describe their previous experiences and to share them in cooperative interaction with others. Perspectives shared about the meaning and application of the teaching content further support the researcher's contention that identifying preferred modes to teach police ethics is a significant aspect of the adult learning process.

The focus of law enforcement training should be moved from mere knowledge cognition to higher levels of expressed learning. The conditions in the consumer's (officer) environment should nurture and establish an attitude of readiness that is favorable for learning. The researcher also contends that if the effect of the officer's success in learning is pleasurable and satisfying, then he/she will strive to continue learning. As with other police training topics, ethics training is most effective when it focuses on the specific needs of those being trained. The development and use of preferred modes of teaching police ethics should provide facilitators (instructors) with a better understanding of the techniques that will provide adult learners with an optimum learning experience and enhance their ability to provide a positive teaching environment.

The process of instructional design should involve a systematic approach for developing a training program rather than choosing the easiest or most familiar mode of teaching. The design should emphasize a commitment to the training program whereby departments and academies focus on the adult learning process and not on meeting mandates. Based on the findings of this study, during the teaching process, facilitators

(FTO and academy instructors) have a tendency to stress the cognitive through material lectured to officers. After emphasizing the importance of recognizing the adult learners' needs and ways to accommodate and develop better training programs suited to these needs, departments must consider lesson plans that incorporate teaching methods focused on the adult learner, as well as one that reflects a progressive, affective outcome-based management philosophy. As Harrison (1999) indicated, a curriculum built solely upon the rigid guidelines of an organization's code of conduct or policy and taught by incompetent instructors, may prevent departments and academies from fulfilling the needs of the officers, and may create an atmosphere of resentment because abilities go unrecognized.

The researcher contends that without a systematic, comprehensive lesson plan, the instructor, officers, academy, and the department lack a significant resource. The lesson plan constitutes the blueprint to meaningful instruction that departments can duplicate and use as a basis for testing. Further, it can provide the specificity and detail required to determine the purpose of the training, the desired outcomes, the conditions under which the officer must perform, and what type of testing took place to ensure learning, items often missing in training outlines. As prescribed above, departments and academies would benefit by applying a sound instructional design and assessment process. Coupled with using preferred modes to teach police ethics, a class environment may then successfully transition the learning process from simple cognition to effective learning, thus reflecting a constructive change in attitudes and practice.

Preferred Teaching Environment

This researcher believes that training is the most significant human resource function undertaken by law enforcement agencies. Most campus police officers receive

more training now than they have in the past. For example, many agencies spend a significant amount of time training new officers at a law enforcement academy and increased on-the-job learning through in-service field-training programs (FTO). The majority of this training focuses on cognitive (or factual) outcomes, not affective (or emotional) outcomes. In an effort to address the need to improve current teaching practices, the researcher contends that higher education law enforcement administrators can create an optimum learning environment for teaching police ethics as indicated by the results of this study:

- Consider the needs of adult learners rather than arbitrarily covering the material because of time constraints.
- Improve department in-service training programs by requiring instructors to attend an academic class that teaches adult learning principles.
- Teaching with purpose - it involves a willingness by law enforcement academies to modify the training approach.

Instructors can contribute to an environment conducive to learning by maintaining a highly intensive, but non-adversarial, training class in which the modes of instruction build on successful class experiences rather than coercive or demeaning activities. Higher education law enforcement departments and academy facilitators should ensure that teaching outcomes are supported by an optimal learning environment consistent with the needs of adult learners. Having served as a police chief for over 18 years, this researcher has continually emphasized the training and educational components of staff development, and modeled this expectation by working toward and earning graduate degrees. Based on those years of learning from others and teaching other officers, the

researcher suggests the following elements that may facilitate a positive interactive learning environment:

- Create a low-risk learning environment by specific seating arrangements in the classroom so that adult learners can comfortably participate in class discussions and respond to questions.
- Do not stand behind a podium. A podium can be perceived by students as an impersonal barrier and affect class interaction.
- Encourage a high level of engagement that includes dilemma-based scenarios (case studies) and requires problem-solving initiative.
- Develop student critical thinking skills by incorporating specialized hypothetical or "what if" questions.
- Examine student learning to alter instruction if necessary. This can be done by class feedback and evaluations.

Every profession has a set of skills that are unique to it. Competency-based learning addresses the dual requirements of an officer needing both a basic skill set and the ability to adapt to situations effectively. The police academy is where an individual receives the majority of professional training in preparation for working as a police officer. The researcher contends that adults learn best and remember longer when the presentation does not exceed their physical limits. They need regular breaks and the availability of refreshments. If fatigue sets in, adults may need the freedom to quietly move around and stretch while in the classroom or even take unscheduled restroom breaks. This freedom allows the adult learner to relax and perform better in the classroom. Della (2004) mentions that the adult lifestyle (alcohol use, smoking, obesity, lack of exercise) sometimes contributes to learners being fatigued when they attend

training; therefore, most adults appreciate any teaching device that adds interest and a sense of liveliness to the learning activity. The researcher contends that instructors should maintain a good sense of humor, employ a variety of teaching methods, make full use of available audiovisual aids, and occasionally find creative ways to change the pace of a learning activity.

Facilitator Recommendations

The development of facilitators is critical to the success of creating an optimum learning environment that will meet the demands of law enforcement's fast-paced and changing profession. King and Lawler (2003) indicated that the most significant trend that continues to make an impact on facilitators is the demand for the incorporation of applicable content and delivery of professional development. Meyer and Marsick (2003) indicated that expectations for training instructors are to arrive not only with delivery skills, but also with curriculum design experience and application of learning theories in a variety of settings. Agencies must also determine that the modes used to teach police ethics contribute to a positive learning experience for the adult learner.

One research finding of this study indicated that facilitators preferred lecture for teaching police ethics. Documents such as the code of ethics, mission statements, and department policies are often used as reference resources. While the lecture process has merit in ensuring the presentation of material, the findings of this study indicate that lecture is the least preferred mode for teaching adults. Typically, academy facilitators conduct firearms in-service training by lecture and demonstration of the most basic procedures with little consideration for the in-service attendees' experience or expertise in the area. Without question, these represent important topics for law enforcement officers to understand and master; however, the adult learning process must be

considered when presenting in such a didactic manner. Instead, they stress the cognitive through material lectured to officers each year. Della (2004) asserts that this type of curriculum, built around the constraints of the academy and the needs and abilities of the instructors, often prevents the academy from fulfilling the needs of the officers and may create an atmosphere of resentment because abilities go unrecognized. Officers, usually grouped in classes with significantly different levels of experience and training, often receive the same training with little modification every year. The researcher believes that successful teaching requires practice, and an instructor needs to be familiar with his material and comfortable teaching it. Facilitators of ethics instruction at a law enforcement academy should make a conscious decision to utilize the tenets of the adult learning process while teaching police ethics. Bruner (1996) suggested that a curriculum should be developed using the principles and values that society deems worthy of continual concern. Bruner wrote about public education but his vision is no less applicable to the education of those who serve the public. Repeated practice with a variety of audiences, including peers and master instructors, is necessary for honing teaching skills and achieving class participation. Practice audiences should provide constructive evaluations of instructor performance.

The researcher contendss that one avenue of creating an optimum learning environment for adult learners is to consider Bloom's (1956) cognitive domain taxonomy. Anderson and Krathwohl (2001) advocate Bloom's simplistic recall of facts, which ranks the levels of thinking and provides instructors with a framework they can use to build curriculum materials that take learners more deeply into an area of study. According to Anderson and Krathwohl (2001), Bloom's learning evaluation process can be thought of as degrees of difficulties - the first one must be mastered before the next one can take place as defined by the following terms:

- *Remembering*: Retrieving, recognizing, and recalling relevant knowledge from long-term memory.
- *Understanding*: Constructing meaning from oral, written, and graphic messages through interpreting, exemplifying, classifying, summarizing, inferring, comparing, and explaining.
- *Applying*: Carrying out or using a procedure through executing, or implementing.
- *Analyzing*: Breaking material into constituent parts, determining how the parts relate to one another and to an overall structure or purpose through differentiating, organizing, and attributing.
- *Evaluating*: Making judgments based on criteria and standards through checking and critiquing.
- *Creating*: Putting elements together to form a coherent or functional whole; reorganizing elements into a new pattern or structure through generating, planning, or producing. (Anderson & Krathwohl, 2001, pp. 67-68)

Bloom's taxonomy of learning domains remains the most widely used system of its kind in education and has also been widely used in the business/corporate sector. Anderson and Krathwohl (2001) maintain that Bloom's approach provides instructors with a simple, clear, and effective model, both for explanation and application of learning objectives, teaching, and training methods, and measurement of learning outcomes.

Training is only effective if the knowledge, skills, and behaviors are transferred to practice. Within the culture of a police department, administrators must support the transfer of training needs and verify that officers have opportunities to apply newly

acquired knowledge. Thus, the researcher suggests that the professional development of instructors should include:

- The design of a lesson plan: develop basic objectives, create an agenda, select appropriate activities, and provide for the delivery of the lesson plan using preferred modes to teach police ethics (case studies, role-playing, video, lecture, texts).
- Use of learner-centered instruction: instructors should create better ways to include opportunities for reflection, clarification, and guidance.
- Case Study: the use of reflective practice skills to assist officers with understanding ethical dilemmas, and then aligning learning solutions with the values inherent to the law enforcement profession, and supporting one's personal character needs, and learning needs for nurturing collaborative community-oriented policing practices.
- The ability to coordinate university-based policy and in-service programs designed as part of the learning process.
- The ability to develop activities that increasingly involve active, experiential learning – especially during department shift briefings and FTO training.

Providing officers with printed material which outlines and explains information that easily measures knowledge, comprehension, and application prior to formal training allows for class time that encourages analysis, synthesis, and evaluation of the topic. This moves the training from the coverage and regurgitation of content onto selected response tests to the demonstration of new knowledge during a competent field performance. As previously stated, best practices to facilitate adult learning include case study methods, work groups, discussion panels, and practice sessions. Employing as many of these

methods as possible will ensure that personal learning preferences are considered. In addition, by strategically applying all of the different levels of engagement, law enforcement administrators can exponentially increase the learner's retention and thereby transfer the knowledge base acquired through the training process to application during the performance of job responsibilities.

Department (FTO)

The following information pertains to the researcher's suggestions for teaching police ethics that may serve to improve the approach of law enforcement academy and department in-service (FTO) facilitators. As documented in the literature – police officers tend to become the kind of officers with whom they are socialized. The two most important components of the socialization process for new officers, and thus the process of leadership development, include formal training and informal peer group indoctrination. Field-training officers have a substantial impact upon the prevention or creation of unethical acts by police officers. In addition, because recruits usually replicate the beliefs and attitudes of FTOs, it is incumbent upon law enforcement agencies to consider ethics as a training topic within the FTO program as expressed in several interview data quotes:

> The field-training officer (FTO), field-training program, and formal classroom training form the cornerstone of a young officer's operational personality. The acquisition of acceptable operational traits and the inculcation of 'preferred' organizational values during this period will last for years under the tutelage of effective leadership. Administrator #12

> The acquisition of 'bad habits' can be avoided through a carefully designed socialization process that is implemented by handpicked personnel at the training academy and in field orientation experiences. Administrator #1

> The field-training officer is all important to the success of a department's training program as the FTO is the first person in authority who will orient a new officer

> to the job environment. These officers must be role models and actually represent the explicit values of the organization. Otherwise, a situation of conflicting behavioral expectations may occur during the training of new police officers. Administrator #54
>
> Chiefs must be aware that the values of police officers are directly related to the concept of the hidden curriculum since values significantly influence organizational performance and community perceptions. Therefore, a chief can use the selection of an FTO as a proactive method for developing a work environment that promotes organizational goals and objectives in Field-Training Programs. Facilitator #51

The department field-training process is a vital part of a new officer's career. In essence, it is the critical link that prepares officers to apply classroom theory to field practice. Its instruction calls for an experienced, skilled FTO who can convey to the recruits a positive attitude toward the organization and police work, in general. As such, the researcher contends that department FTOs must become a major focus of law enforcement's efforts to provide ethics training. This researcher recommends that FTOs conduct ethics training in the following manner:

- Ensure that FTOs thoroughly understand their responsibility to influence a department's 'organizational culture' by utilizing modes of teaching police ethics that will: 1) create a positive learning environment; 2) prepare trainees prior to attending the academy; and 3) provide follow-up mentoring upon academy graduation.
- Utilize case study to teach police ethics through ethical dilemma simulation training that focuses on previously documented unethical cases involving new recruits. Ethics must immediately become a major focus of law enforcement's in-service training efforts.

- Provide mandatory, annual ethical dilemma simulation training, and require that instructors of each training topic address the ethical perspective of the topic they are presenting.
- Ensure that every instructor of each in-service class addresses the ethical perspective of what is being taught.
- Use internal e-mail, newsletters or other correspondence to disseminate words, quotes or verbiage dealing with ethics.
- Develop emotional role-play scenario training that teaches officers the need for and how to intervene when another officer is about to commit an unethical act.

Sherman (1999) contends that if supervisors and field-training officers (FTOs) have not themselves accepted the values established of a department, no effort to teach officers the standards of a department will be successful. The department administrator can build a positive work environment by being aware that the influence of FTOs as a mentor is powerful resource in the training of new officers. The role and commitment level of field-training officers (FTO) and department administrators are important factors regarding the training process of officers. Rachlin (1995) offered an analysis of department training similar to Sherman's (1999) critique of ethics training in formal educational settings. Quoting Neal Trautman, director of the National Institute of Ethics, Rachlin (1995) offered Trautman's comments:

> Most police officers have gone through their entire careers with hardly any ethics training. The national average for ethics training at police academies, he said, is just a handful of hours and for (department) in-service training it's basically nil. (p. 81)

Thus, when there is consistency between explicit and implicit organizational values, explicit job-related behavioral expectations are continually reinforced throughout the training program, creating a conducive learning environment for new officers. As

Engleson (1999) indicated, leaders that set forth explicit behavioral expectations through the development of a "value-congruent" training program have the potential to significantly improve organizational performance. These recommendations emphasize that ethics training must become a component of all internal instruction. Taking advantage of current ethics training techniques and tools can assist and enhance in-service ethics training. This researcher has experienced incidents in which the neglect of in-service ethics training has frequently been present when employee misconduct occurred. In order to have a viable and effective integrity and ethics impact within a police organization, it is critical that an integrity and ethics emphasis be infused into an agency's policy and procedure, training, supervision and accountability systems. This integrity and ethics infusion should be nonspecific, in that certain integrity and ethics principles are applicable to all personnel in every assignment and at every level within the agency. It should be specific, in that there are unique integrity and ethics applications to each assignment and position in a police agency. Utilizing modes of teaching police ethics prescribed by this study should promote the success of a department's field-training program.

The FBI Model

The Federal Bureau of Investigation (FBI) has an established precedent of developing and implementing training for state and local law enforcement officers. The Bureau's training programs have enjoyed a long-standing reputation for excellence and have been widely attended by state and local administrators throughout the United States. This researcher has had the privilege of attending the 11-week FBI National Academy for executive leadership. In addition, the researcher has completed 15 hours of accredited classes through the University of Virginia, including a course entitled "Leadership in

Developing the Organizational Ethic: Ethics in Policing." This course was developed by Special Agents Walt Sirene, James M. Kelly, and Marita V. Malone of the FBI Training Division of the Management Science Unit at Quantico, Virginia (FBI, 2000).

The police ethics course, developed by the FBI, maintains the Bureau's reputation for training excellence and it exemplifies a course of instruction that has been well-thought out. The following information offers a brief review and analysis of the training manual provided to students enrolled in the course. This manual was published in February of 1995 and updated in April of 2000. The forward of the training manual provides a statement offered as a rationale for ethics instruction:

> Achieving an understanding of ethics is critical to professional judgment; it provides a strong foundation for making wise decision. It is also important to learning the boundaries for accepted behavior, as established by the Government through the Constitution, as well as laws, regulations, and policies. Finally, this knowledge must be applied to actual behavior. Just as our individual ethics are judged by our personal behavior, the ethics of our agency and of law enforcement are judged by our collective behavior. (FBI, 2000, p. 1)

The manual provides three suggestions for instruction and learning that are applicable to this research study regarding modes of teaching police ethics and providing an optimum learning experience for officers. First, the training manual provides students with several documents that address critical issues related to ethics and the decision-making process. The related theoretical concepts were presented during class. For example, students were asked to analyze the Declaration of Independence, the Preamble to the Constitution, the Gettysburg Address, the IACP Code of Conduct, excerpts from Martin Luther Kings's "Letters from Birmingham Jail," and the book *Character and Cops* by Edwin Delattre. Prior to attending class, students were required to read and analyze the articles so that a foundation of awareness applicable to the law enforcement profession was formed that would precipitate logic-based questions and responses from adult learners during the

teaching process. Second, facilitators utilized the case study mode of teaching police ethics to establish a participative learning environment conducive for adult learners. Students and the facilitator engaged in discussions about actual experiences that involved impropriety and ethical conduct. This technique formulated an understanding related to such behaviors as justice, probity, goodness, equality, and freedom. The third phase of the training required that students reflect on the ideas and principles presented in class and incorporate this information into their professional conduct through role-playing exercises. Students were asked to consider such concepts as fair and open access to police services, use of their position for personal gain, decision making free from improper influence, and the perception of decisions that are made during the performance of their duty. The role-playing also consisted of students evaluating and critiquing peers using department policies, rules, and regulations related to behavioral expectations and the disciplinary action associated with unethical behavior.

The FBI ethics course was a profoundly stimulating and rewarding learning experience, especially since the facilitator taught the course using the case study and role-playing modes that were also preferred by participants of this study. Even though it was apparent that many class members did little or no reading of the texts, the facilitator clearly anticipated this and incorporated interactive discussions that compelled participant involvement. As such, the FBI ethics course made extensive use of student-involved processes and allowed for the sharing of ideas and perceptions among the students, thus demonstrating the use of a collaborative education techniques ascribed to the adult learning principles of androgogy as described in this study.

FUTURE RESEARCH

The findings of this study have provided some understanding and applicability of the preferred modes for teaching police ethics coupled with a passion for improving the adult learning process. Yet, the researcher believes there other areas of future research that need to be addressed regarding the outcomes of teaching police ethics. For example, testing instruments need to be better than they are now. Longitudinal studies need to be completed that demonstrate how well higher education law enforcement has done regarding the hiring process, and retaining individuals who will mature to be police officers of integrity. Another area of inquiry worth pursuing is to track the relationship between teaching ethics in police academies and the behavioral conduct of those recruits who return to departments as police officers. My initial sense is that the more extensive use of the preferred modes of teaching police ethics, the clearer the effect will be, though the social scientific evidence on the relationship between academic ethics training and moral behavior is, at least at this point, ambiguous. As Vicchio (1997) contended, one element about department field-training (FTO) and the academy training is clear. If it is to be effective, it needs to be rigorous and it needs to emphasize critical thinking skills, use problem-solving techniques, and use principles of adult learning. In short, it needs to be the right blend of the theoretical and the practical.

Another topic of interest for future research concerns whether the effects of using the preferred modes identified in this study to teach police ethics actually influences the ethical behavior of police officers while performing the job. If police integrity was measured by the way state medical organizations measure the integrity of physicians or the way state judicial review boards measure the integrity of lawyers, we will not be successful. Historically, these organizations try to determine what their members have been successful in avoiding. Integrity, in this context, may be seen as not leaving a

sponge in a patient's abdominal cavity or not having conflicts of interest. These governing bodies look to see if the doctor or lawyer has followed the rules and regulations and has avoided doing wrong. Avoiding wrong behavior, however, is not the same as having integrity. One way to begin this task is first to refine the definition of core virtues that serve as the basis of police officer integrity, and then utilize preferred modes of teaching that contextually encompass a palatable ethics framework that officers will embrace.

A fourth item for future study would be the development of an agenda - a national mission statement, if you will - that states specifically what the moral purposes are of police organizations. This should be distinctive from the present broad-based code of ethics endorsed by the International Association of Chiefs of Police (IACP). It needs to involve definitive and purposeful criteria that can be both a work in progress (subject societal norms) and operable – that is, officers can use it as a point of reference for practical applicability rather than a die-hard panacea. What we want a department to be ultimately should tell us a great deal about what we want our officers to do. If we are going to think of ourselves as a profession, then we must assume the level of responsibility that a professional life entails. Given the academic culture in which it serves, the higher education law enforcement profession ought to require more from officers and administrators than we expect from the general population.

Finally, the culture of a police department, to a large degree, determines the organization's effectiveness. That culture determines the way officers view not only their role but also the people they serve. Improving the adult learning experience for police ethics training through preferred modes used to teach is but one approach to affecting organizational change within the culture of a department. Yet, how does one actually establish a positive departmental culture? In answering this question, it is important to

realize that all departments have a culture. It is also important to recognize that the culture of a police department, once established, is difficult to change. Organizational change within a police agency does not occur in a revolutionary fashion; rather, it is evolutionary. Future research should include how changing or establishing departmental culture is contingent upon the development of organizational values. Values for a police department serve a variety of purposes, and there should be a few values which, when taken together, represent what the organization considers important. For example, if it is the objective of the department to create a culture that is service-oriented, then such a goal should be reflected in its set of values. As the leader, an essential role of the police chief is to ensure that there is a system to facilitate effective communication of a department's values. This is important because, in addition to the formal structure, values are transmitted through its informal process as well as its myths, legends, metaphors, and the chief's own personality. Future research regarding values and police culture can also serve as a framework for developing a set of policing values that reflects its own community. Until such a time as the police begin to discuss ethics in a purposeful, reflective, and meaningful way, any discussions related to course content, frequency of instruction, and instructor qualifications will, at best, be superfluous. The apparent lack of consensus regarding the critical issues associated with police ethics, and whether academicians, police officers, or consultants should provide ethics training instruction, is relevant to future research purposes yet to be explored. Such a diversity of opinions will certainly continue to create worthy debate and discussions regarding the critical aspect of teaching police ethics in the law enforcement profession.

SUMMARY

Higher education law enforcement officers should utilize opportunities to interface with students as a teaching moment that promotes the student developmental process. In the realm of acquiring new skills and knowledge, understanding the preferred modes of teaching police ethics may provide the most optimal learning experience for campus police officers, and further support the teaching/learning process and character development of students. Clearly an understanding of the modes to teach police ethics, coupled with proper utilization within the classroom setting, can enhance the adult learning process for ethics training programs. This researcher concurs and acknowledges that how police ethics is taught is a function of both content and process. A conscious decision should be made to treat police personnel attending ethics programs as adults and to utilize the tenets of the adult learning process.

In addition, department expectations that require peer review and participant accountability are also an essential element for supporting an effective and relevant training experience. The department administrator and field-training officers have a responsibility to the community they serve. Administrators especially must demonstrate a commitment to higher standards, ideals, and values that incorporate principle-based adult learning and leadership. Practitioners should embrace a balanced approach, which includes realty-based case study dilemmas, role-playing activities that apply ethical frameworks, and lectures that introduce codes of ethics. By moving away from the traditional lecture formats and creating learning environments that facilitate self-directed learning, agencies can increase officer retention capacities and better ensure that they put their training into practice. Mandated training requirements have a valid purpose, but agencies should ensure that teaching modes are based on the needs of students, not the constraints and needs of the organization. Simply telling someone how to do something

does not mean that learning has occurred; covering mandated content does not mean that officers will transfer the material into practice on the job. Instead, by adopting the principles of andragogy, agencies can instruct with a higher purpose and help their officers achieve full potential.

Unfortunately, the modes used to teach police ethics, no matter how elaborate, cannot adequately portray the complexity of ethical dilemmas. Applying the preferred modes to teach police ethics as determined by this research study, however, may provide an ethics education approach that strongly suggests that the shaping of an ethical philosophy does not depend on recognizing and avoiding those dilemmas most often sensationalized by the media and the public. An ethical philosophy can be developed by the manner in which an officer experiences confusion, ambiguity, and compromise. As such, educators wishing to address the issues of moral development and education through an academic conception of morality should make use of current perspectives. All of which can ingratiate into the behavior and decisions confronted by police officers on a daily basis. Recognizing these common dilemmas, acknowledging the ethical systems, and resolving these dilemmas by using an ethical philosophical framework discovered and nurtured by the preferred modes of teaching police ethics, may provide officers with a working foundation for ethical behavior. Law enforcement has come a long way in recognizing the importance and significance of training. To keep the training evolution progressing, administrators and facilitators can incorporate the suggestions of this research that consider the needs of adult learners and compel consumers (officers) to be equally accountable for their own learning.

Appendix A: Survey Instrument

Preferred Modes of Teaching Police Ethics in Higher Education Law Enforcement

Introduction

The purpose of this survey is to determine what preferred modes of teaching are used to provide ethics training to police officers in higher education law enforcement. This survey will examine your opinions about the usefulness of methods used to teach police ethics. It is believed that the results of this research may improve the ability of academy instructors, department training officers, and police administrators to provide more useful training to law enforcement personnel.

This survey will examine the perspectives of those involved with the police ethics teaching process at institutions of higher education:

Administrators	-	Police Chiefs and law enforcement academy directors.
Facilitators	-	Department instructor (FTO) or academy instructor.
Consumers	-	Police officers of each department.

Instructions

You were selected because you are a member of one of the above groups. Your views and experiences will be extremely useful in an attempt to understand the preferred teaching methods for providing police ethics training. Your participation in this survey is *strictly voluntary and your response will remain confidential*. To participate, simply scroll down this page and complete the questions that follow. If you do not wish to participate, you may exit at any time. In an effort to maintain the confidentiality of each respondent, please do not put your name, or the identity of your department. No attempts will be made to link any response to particular individuals or organizations.

Please provide your email address, and indicate (yes/no) whether you would like to receive a copy of the results of this survey. Email:

I would like to receive a copy of the survey results:

☐ Yes ☉ No

Please indicate the position you presently hold:

☉ Administrator: Police chief or Director of law enforcement academy.

☐ Facilitator: Department in-service training officer/coordinator, or Field Training Officer (FTO).

☐ Consumer: Police Officer

The following statements refer to police ethics in law enforcement. Please indicate the extent of your agreement or disagreement by circling your response.

1. According to a study conducted by the International Association of Chiefs of Police *Ad Hoc Committee on Police Ethics and Image*, "Ethics is our greatest training and leadership need today…" (1997).

Strongly Agree Agree Neither Agree or Disagree Disagree Strongly Disagree

2. I have received a sufficient level of police ethics training during my law enforcement career.

Strongly Agree Agree Neither Agree or Disagree Disagree Strongly Disagree

3. Principles related to police ethics training have a personal, social, and professional benefit.

Strongly Agree Agree Neither Agree or Disagree Disagree Strongly Disagree

4. A lack of police ethics training can contribute to misconduct and unethical behavior.

Strongly Agree Agree Neither Agree or Disagree Disagree Strongly Disagree

5. Scandals, lawsuits, and negative media attention can be minimized by police ethics training.

Strongly Agree Agree Neither Agree or Disagree Disagree Strongly Disagree

6. Ethics training for police officers should be provided by the law enforcement academy.

Strongly Agree Agree Neither Agree or Disagree Disagree Strongly Disagree

7. Police chiefs should receive training about police ethics.

Strongly Agree Agree Neither Agree or Disagree Disagree Strongly Disagree

8. Police ethics training should be a part of a department's Field Training Program.

Strongly Agree Agree Neither Agree or Disagree Disagree Strongly Disagree

9. Police ethics training should be included in a department's in-service training schedule.

Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither Agree or Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree

10. Adults learn best when the topic is of immediate value and they know why they need to learn something.

Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither Agree or Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree

11. Training instructors who teach police ethics have a difficult time creating a positive learning environment.

Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither Agree or Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree

12. Too often, ethics training programs have consisted of little more than a lecture or sermon presented in a threatening and offensive tone.

Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither Agree or Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree

13. Law enforcement administrators and instructors must reexamine current teaching practices and find ways to incorporate adult learning principles, strategies, and methodologies into police ethics training programs.

Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither Agree or Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree

14. In an effort to promote ethicalness within higher education law enforcement, improving student learning and teaching expertise will be necessary.

Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither Agree or Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree

15. Understanding what the preferred methods are for teaching police ethics is a significant factor in providing officers with personal meaning that promotes learning.

Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither Agree or Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree

Survey Instrument - Modes of Teaching Police Ethics

This survey will examine your opinion about the modes of teaching police ethics. Research indicates that there are several common modes of instruction (alphabetically):

- Case studies: includes actual or hypothetical stories of ethical dilemmas (war stories) experienced by law enforcement personnel.
- Lectures: includes presentations or statements about proper conduct and work expectations; a review of codes of ethics; and department or state ethic policies provided to officers during the initial hiring process, in-service training or at a law enforcement academy.
- Role Playing: involves an activity that includes logic based guidelines and options to assist an officer with their decision making process for determining a course of conduct or action.
- Texts/publications: consists of reading assignments that includes books and journal articles about law enforcement ethics and may require a written response.
- Training Videos: includes movies and videos of a non-fiction/documentary and fiction nature that consist of a police ethics theme.

Preferred: In this study, preferred is defined as giving priority to a teaching mode that is more desirable or has more value for providing police ethics training. If you believe a mode has great value or significant importance as a teaching practice it is highly preferred. If you believe a mode has little value or insignificant importance as a teaching practice, it is not preferred. Please indicate the preferred modes of teaching to provide police ethics training at a campus police department or law enforcement academy.

1. Case studies of actual or hypothetical examples that involve ethical dilemmas.

Not preferred Least preferred Neutral Generally preferred Highly preferred

2. Lectures

Not preferred Least preferred Neutral Generally preferred Highly preferred

3. Role Playing

Not preferred Least preferred Neutral Generally preferred Highly preferred

4. Textbooks and publications.

Not preferred Least preferred Neutral Generally preferred Highly preferred

5. Training Videos.

Not preferred Least preferred Neutral Generally preferred Highly preferred

Your Comments: Please provide any additional comments about teaching ethics to higher education law enforcement personnel. Note: 500 characters or less

Submit

Thank you for your participation.

Jeffrey M. Van Slyke
Chief of Police
The University of Mississippi
Office (662) 915-7469 Fax (662) 915-5371
vanslyke@olemiss.edu

Appendix B: Survey/Documents Cover Letter

Preferred Modes of Teaching Police ***E-MAIL
Ethics in Higher Education Law Enforcement
A Treatise Study
By Jeffrey M. Van Slyke

This study will be conducted in an effort to provide an organized analysis and description of the modes of delivery for teaching police ethics in the higher education law enforcement profession. It is anticipated that the information and insights gained from this research may improve the ability of academy instructors, department training officers, and police administrators to provide more useful training to law enforcement personnel. Please try to complete survey by December 22, 2006.

The following information is needed to assist with facilitating this research study:
The completion of a survey about teaching police ethics – please complete the survey located at: http://www.arms.com/survey/. The approximate completion time is ten minutes.

This survey will examine the perspectives of those involved with the police ethics learning process at institutions of higher education:

Administrator: Police Chief/Law Enforcement Academy Director.
Facilitator: Department training instructor (FTO)/Academy Instructor.
Consumer: Police officer.

Information received from the survey will be used to conduct follow-up interviews with the participants (administrators, facilitators, and consumers). The interviews will be as brief as possible and be conducted by either telephone or e-mail. ***NOTE: Five interview questions have been attached to the end of the survey – please complete prior to submitting the survey.

Any training documentation that your department uses to teach or promote police ethics i.e., curriculum, department mission statement, policy statement, etc. Please fax, e-mail, or mail using the information below.

Thank you for your support and cooperation.

Best Regards,

Jeffrey M. Van Slyke
Chief of Police
Kinard Hall – Wing C
The University of Mississippi
University, Mississippi 38677-1848
Office (662) 915-7469 (662) 915-5371 Fax
vanslyke@olemiss.edu

Appendix C: Interview Questions

Preferred Modes of Teaching Police Ethics in Higher Education Law Enforcement ***E-MAIL

INTERVIEW QUESTIONS

Your participation in completing the interview questions is **strictly voluntary and your response will remain confidential.** Please indicate your position as a participant:

_____ Administrator: Police Chief/Law enforcement Academy Director.
_____ Facilitator: Department training instructor (FTO)/Academy instructor.
_____ Consumer: Police officer.

The interview process is as follows:

Please provide a convenient telephone number _____ where you can be contacted to discuss the questions, or submit a written response per e-mail to: vanslyke@olemiss.edu.

1. Please provide your perspective about the importance of teaching police ethics at both the department and police academy environments?

2. What are your thoughts concerning how police ethics training should be taught?

3. Can the elements of the adult learning process (participation, rapport, application, motivation) provide a balanced delivery of teaching police ethics?

4. Does the adult learning process within your police department or at the law enforcement academy emphasize meaning and application of the information being taught?

5. Given the importance of police ethics training, what preferred modes of teaching do you believe can provide for a beneficial learning experience at both the department and police academy environments: cases studies, role-playing, lecture, texts/publications, or training videos?

Thank you for your participation.

Appendix D: Law Enforcement Code of Ethics

As a law enforcement officers, my fundamental duty is to serve the community, to safeguard lives and property, to protect the innocent against deception, the weak against oppression or intimidation and the peaceful against violence or disorder; and to respect the constitutional rights of all to liberty, justice, and equality.

I will keep my private life unsullied as an example to all and will behave in a manner that does not bring discredit to me or to my agency. I will maintain courageous calm in the face of danger, scorn or ridicule; develop self-restraint; and be constantly mindful of the welfare of others. Honest in thought and deed both in my personal and official life, I will be exemplary in obeying the law and the regulations of my department. Whatever I see or hear of a confidential nature or that is confided to me in my official capacity will be kept ever secret unless revelation is necessary in the performance of my duty.

I will never act officiously or permit personal feelings, prejudices, political beliefs, aspirations, animosities or friendships to influence my decisions. With no compromise for crime and with relentless prosecution of criminals, I will enforce the law courteously and appropriately without fear or favor, malice or ill will, never employing unnecessary force or violence and never accepting gratuities.

I recognize the badge of my office as a symbol of public faith, and I accept it as a public trust to be held so long as I am true to the ethics of police service. I will never engage in acts of corruption or bribery, nor will I condone such acts by other police officers. I will cooperate with all legally authorized agencies and their representatives in the pursuit of justice.

I know that I alone am responsible for my own standard of professional performance and will take every reasonable opportunity to enhance and improve my level of knowledge and competence.

I will constantly strive to achieve these objectives and ideals, dedicating myself before God to my chosen profession . . . law enforcement. (IACP, 1991)

Appendix E: IRB Approval

References

Ad hoc committee on police ethics and image (1997). International association of chiefs of police (no page number). Retrieved June 30, 2005 from: http://www.theiacp.org/profassist/ethics/ethics_training.htm.

Anderson, L., & Krathwohl, D, R. (2001). *A taxonomy for learning, teaching and assessing: A revision of Bloom's taxonomy of educational objectives*. New York: Longman.

Arnzen, M. (January 25, 2004). Teaching as organizing: A personal inquiry into the scholarship of teaching. Retrieved May 10, 2006 from: http://blogs.setonhill.edu/MikeArnzen/001964.html.

Barker, T. (1996). *Police ethics: Crisis in law enforcement*. Springfield, IL: Thomas Publishing.

Barker, T., & Carter, D. (1994). *Police deviance*. Cincinnati, OH: Anderson Publishing.

Bennet, W. J. (1997). *The book of virtues for young people: A treasury of great moral stories*. New York: Simon and Schuster.

Bickel, R. D., & Lake, P. F. (1999). *The responsibilities of the modern university: Who assumes the risks of college life?* Durham, NC: Carolina Academic Press.

Bittner, E. (1991). *The functions of police in modern society*. Washington, DC: U.S. Government Printing Office. Black's Law Dictionary (1990). Sixth edition, p. 787. St. Paul, MN: West Publishing.

Black's Law Dictionary (6th Ed.1990). St. Paul, MN: West Publishing.

Bloom, B. S., & Krathwohl, D. R. (1956). *Taxonomy of educational objectives: Handbook 1, the cognitive domain*. New York: McKay, Inc.

Bogdan, R. C., & Biklen, S. K. (2007). *Qualitative research for education: An introductory to theory and methods* (p. 64). Boston, MA: Pearson.

Bowen, C. D. (1924). *History of Lehigh university*. Lehigh, PA: Lehigh alumni bulletin. In Gelber, Seymour (Ed.), *The Role of campus security in the* college setting (p. 23). Washington, DC: U.S. Department of Justice.

Braswell, M. E., McCarthy, B. R., & McCarthy, B. J. (1998). *Justice, crime and ethics*. Cincinnati, OH: Anderson Publishing Company.

Braunstein, S., & Tyre, M. (January, 1992). Building a more ethical police department. *The Police Chief, 59*, 30-35.

Brax, R. (1981). *The first student movement*. Port Washington, NY: Kennikat Press.

Brookfield, S. D. (1986). *Understanding and facilitating adult learning: A comprehensive analysis of principles and effective practices*. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.

Bruner, J. (1996) *The culture of education*, Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.

Byers, B. (December, 2002). Ethics and criminal justice: Some observations on police misconduct. *Crime and Justice International*, 6-9.

Cohen, C. (1983). Teaching police ethics. *Teaching philosophy*, 231-243.

Cohen, R., & Zelnik, R. (2002). *The free speech movement: Reflections on Berkeley in the 1960s*. Berkeley, CA: University of California Press.

Cooksey, O. E. (September-1991). Corruption: A continuing challenge for law enforcement. *FBI Law Enforcement Bulletin*, 60(9), 5-9.

Cordner, G. W., & Sheehan, R. (1999). *Police administration*. Cincinnati, OH: Anderson Publishing.

Crain, W. C. (1985). *Theories of development*. Upper Saddle River, NJ: Prentice-Hall.

Crain, W. C. (June, 2004). Kohlberg's stages of moral development. *Theories of Development*, 118-136. Upper Saddle River, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall. Retrieved December 14, 2006 from: *http://faculty.plts.edu/gpence/html/kohlber.htm*.

Crank, J. P., & Caldero, M. A. (2000). *Police ethics: The corruption of the noble cause*. Cincinnati, OH: Anderson Publishing, Inc.

Curti, M. (1949). The University of Wisconsin. In Gelber, Seymour (Ed.), *The role of campus security in the college setting* (p. 20). Washington, DC: U.S. Department of Justice.

Damon, W. (1990). *The moral child*: *Nurturing children's natural moral growth*. New York: The Free Press.

Davis, M. (Summer/Fall 1991). Do cops really need a code of ethics? *Criminal Justice Ethics, 10*, 14-28. New York: John Jay College.

Dantzker, M. L. (1999). *Police organization and management*. Boston: Butterworth Heinemann.

Dees, T. (1996). The Sipowizc factor. *Law Enforcement Technology*, *23*, 58-60.

Delany, H. R. (1988). Toward a professional ethic. *Justice Professional*, *3*, 39-55.

Delattre, E. J. (2002). *Character and cops*. Lanham, MD: University Press.

Della, B. A. (2004). Nontraditional training systems: Realizing the effectiveness of an agency's most valuable resource. *FBI Law Enforcement Bulletin*, *73*, 1-9.

Denzin, N. K., & Lincoln, Y. S. (2005). Introduction: The discipline and practice of qualitative research. In Denzin, N. K. & Lincoln, Y. S. (Eds.), *The handbook of qualitative research* (pp. 1-32). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.

DeVries, R., & Zan, B. (1994). Moral children: Constructing a constructivist atmosphere in early education. New York: Teachers College Press.

Dey, I. (1993). *Qualitative data analysis*. London, ENG: Routledge.

Dick, B. (1999) Sources of rigor in action research: Addressing the issues of trustworthiness and credibility. Retrieved May 31, 2006 from: *http://www.scu.edu.au/schools/gcm/ar/arp/rigour3.html*.

Dixon v. Alabama State Board of Education (1961). 294 F. 2d 150.

Donahue, M. E. (1992). Crisis in police ethics: Is professionalism an answer? *American Journal of Police*, *11*, 47-70.

Eisenberg, E. M., & Riley, P. (2001). Organizational culture. In F. M. Jabil, & L. L. Putnam (Eds.), *New handbook of organizational communication* (pp. 291-322). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Engelson, W. (1999). The organizational values of law enforcement agencies: The impact of field training officers in the socialization of police recruits to law enforcement organizations. *Journal of Police and Criminal Psychology*, *14* (2), 17.

Esposito, D., & Stormer, D. (May/June 1989). The multiple roles of campus law Enforcement. *Campus Law Enforcement Journal*, *19*, 26-29.

Fair, F. K., & Pilcher, W. P. (1991). Morality on the line: The role of ethics in police decision-making. *American Journal of Police*, *10*, 23-38.

Federal Bureau of Investigations (April, 2000). *Leadership in developing the organizational ethics: Ethics in policing*. FBI Training Academy: Quantico, VA.

Fitzpatrick, C. A. (July, 1992). Customized code of ethics. *FBI Law Enforcement Bulletin*, *61*, 20-21.

Fontana, A., & Frey, J. H. (1994). Interviewing: The art of science. In Denzin, N. K. & Lincoln, Y. S. (Eds.), *Handbook of qualitative research* (pp. 361-376). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.

Forrest, F. G. (October, 1996). Enhancing law enforcement's level of ethical awareness. *The Police Chief*, 38-40.

Gay, L. R., Mills, G.E., & Airasian, P. (2006). *Educational research: Competencies for analysis and applications*. (8th ed.). Upper Saddle, NJ: Pearson Prentice Hall.

Gelber, S. (1972). *The role of campus security in the college setting*. Washington, DC: U.S. Department of Justice.

Gilligan, C. (1977). In a different voice: Women's conceptions of self and morality. *Harvard Educational Review, 47* (4).

Gilligan, C. (1982). *In a different voice: psychological theory and women's development*. Harvard University Press: Cambridge, MA.

Gilmartin, K. M., & Harris, J. J. (January, 1998). Law enforcement ethics…the continuum of compromise. *Police Chief, 65*(1), 4.

Glaser, B., & Strauss, A. L. (1967). The discovery of grounded theory: Strategies for qualitative research. Chicago, IL: Aldine.

Glaser, B. (1978). *Theoretical sensitivity*. Mill Valley, CA: Sociology Press.

Glesne, C., & Peshkin, A. (1999). *Becoming qualitative researchers: An introduction*. New York: Longman

Glickman, C. D., & Gordon, S. P. (2006). *Supervision and instructional Leadership: A developmental approach*. Boston, MA: Allyn & Bacon.

Grant, J. K. (December, 2002). Ethics and law enforcement. FBI Law Enforcement Bulletin. Retrieved July 16, 2005 from: *http://findarticles.com/p/articles/mi_m2194/is_12_71/ai_96453523*.

Guba, E. G., & Lincoln, Y. S. (2000). Competing paradigms in qualitative research. In N. K. Denzin & Y. S. Lincoln (Eds.), *Handbook of qualitative research* (pp. 105-117). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Haidt, J (2001). The emotional dog and its rational tail: A social intuitionist approach to moral judgment. *Psychological Review, 108*, 814-834.

Hansen, D. A. (1973). *Police ethics*. Springfield, IL: Thomas Publishing.

Harrison, B. (August 1999). Noble cause corruption and the police ethic. *FBI Law Enforcement Bulletin*, *68*(8), 1-7.

Hess, K. M., & Wrobleski, H. M. (1993). *Police operations*. Saint Paul, MN: West Publishing.

Hinkle, D. E., Wiersma, W., & Jurs, S. G. (2003). *Applied statistics for the behavioral sciences*. (5th ed.). Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co.

Hopkins, J. F. (1951). *The University of Kentucky: Origin and early years*. Lexington, KY: University of Kentucky Press. In Gelber, Seymour (Ed.), *The role of campus security in the college setting* (p. 24). Washington, DC: U.S. Department of Justice.

Huberman, A. M., & Miles, M. B. (1983). Drawing valid meaning from qualitative data: Some techniques of data reduction and display. *Quality and Quantity, 17*(17), 281-339.

Hyams, M. T. (October, 1991). Communicating the ethical standard. *The Police Chief, 58,* 127-133.

International Association of Chiefs of Police (January, 1992). The evolution of the law enforcement code of ethics. *The Police Chief, 61*, 14-17.

Irwin, C. (1988). What research tells the principal about the teaching of values. NASSP 72nd Annual Convention – Anaheim, CA. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. 303476).

Jeanne Clery Disclosure of Campus Security Policy and Campus Crime Statistics Act (1990). 20 USC section. Retrieved July 7, 2005 from: http://www.ed.gov/admins/lead/safety/campus.html.

Josephson, M. (1995). Police corruption. In Close, D., & Meier, N. (Eds.),*Morality in criminal justice* (pp. 285-313). New York: Wadsworth Publishing.

Jones, T. R., Owens, C., & Smith, M. A. (1995). Police ethics training: A three tiered approach. *FBI Law Enforcement Journal, 64*, 22-26.

Kennedy, R. C. (April, 2003). Applying principles of adult learning: The key to more effective training program. *FBI Law Enforcement Journal, 72*, 1-5. Washington, DC: U.S. Department of Justice.

Kim, E. C., & Kellough, R. D. (1987). *A resource guide for secondary school* teaching: Planning for competence. New York: Macmillan.

King, K. P. & Lawler, P.A. (2003). Trends and issues in the professional development of teachers of adults. *New Directions for Adult & Continuing Education, 98,* 5-13.

Kirschner, D., & Whitson, J. (1997). *Situated cognition: Social, semiotic, and psychological perspectives*. Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

Kleinig, J. (1996). *Police ethics*. New York: Cambridge Univ. Press.

Knowles, M. S. (1975). *Self-Directed Learning*: *A guide for learners and teachers*. Englewood Cliffs, CA: Prentice Hall.

Knowles, M. S. (1980) The modern practice of adult education. From pedagogy to andragogy. Englewood Cliffs: Prentice Hall/Cambridge.

Knowles, M. S. (1984). *Andragogy in action*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Kohlberg, L. (1981). *The philosophy of moral development*. San Francisco: Harper & Row.

Kohlberg, L., Levine, C., & Hewer, A. (1983). *Moral stages: A current formulation and response to critics*. New York: Karger.

Lagrange, R. (1998). *Policing American society*. Chicago, IL: Nelson-Hall.

Lave, J., & Wenger, E. (1991). *Situated learning*. New York: Cambridge.

Lawler, P.A., & King, K.P. (2003). Changes, challenges, and the future. *New Directions for Adult and Continuing Education, 98,* 83-91.

Law enforcement code of ethics (1991). International Association of Chief of Police, 515 North Washington Street, Arlington, VA. Retrieved September 13, 2005 from: http://www.theiacp.org/about/.

LeCompte, M., & Priessle, J. (1993). *Ethnography and qualitative design in educational research*. San Diego, CA: Academic Press.

Lee, C. (1970). *The campus scene: 1900-1970*. New York: McKay.

Lee, C. (March, 1986). Ethics training: Facing the tough questions. *Training, 23,* 30-33.

Leonard, V. A., & More, H. W. (1971). *Police organization and management*. Mineola, NY: Foundation Press.

Lieb, S. (1991). Principles of adult learning. *Vision*. Retrieved February 26, 2006 from: http://honolulu.hawaii.edu/intranet/committees/FacDevCom/guidebk/teachtip/adults-2.htm.

Lincoln, Y. S., & Guba, E. G. (1985). *Naturalistic inquiry* (p. 308). Beverly Hills, CA: Sage.

Lynch, G. W. (1999). Human dignity and the police: Ethics and integrity in police work. Springfield, Ill: Thomas Publishing.

Mallet, C. E. (1968). *A history of the University of Oxford: The medieval university*. In Gelber, Seymour (Ed.), *The role of campus security in the college setting* (p. 17). Washington, DC: U.S. Department of Justice.

Mangan, T. (March, 1992). Organizational integrity critical to law enforcement success. *The Police Chief, 59*, 47-49.

Manning, P. K. (1989). The police occupational culture in Anglo-American societies. In L. Hoover & J. Dowling (Eds.), *Encyclopedia of Police Science*. New York, NY: Garland.

Marshall, C., & Rossman, G. (2006). *Designing qualitative research*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Massey, D. (1993). Why us and why? Some reflections on teaching ethics to police. *Police Studies, 16*, 77-83.

McKeachie, W. J. (2005). *Teaching tips: Strategies, research, and theory for college and university teachers*. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company.

Merriam, S. B. (1998). *Qualitative research and case study applications in education*. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.

Merriam, S. B. (1999). *Learning in adulthood: A comprehensive guide*. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.

Merriam, S. B. (2001). Andragogy and self-directed learning: Pillars of adult learning theory. *New Directions for Adult & Continuing Education, 89*, 3-14.

Merriam, S. B. (2002). *Qualitative research in practice*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Merriam-Webster On-line. Definition of the word "ethics." Retrieved August 13, 2005 from: *http://www.m-w.com/dictionary/ethics*.

Metz, H. W. (1986). Ethical model for law enforcement administrators. *Justice Professional, 1*, 72-77.

Meyer, S. R., & Marsick, V.J. (2003). Professional development in corporate training. *New Directions for Adult & Continuing Education, 98*, 75-82.

Miles, M. B., & Huberman, A. M. (1984). *Qualitative data analysis: A sourcebook of new methods*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.

Miller, S. (1997). *Police ethics*. New York: Paul & Company Publishers.

Morison, S. (1936). *Harvard College in the seventeenth century*. Cambridge, MA: Harvard Press. In Gelber, Seymour (Ed.), *The role of campus security in the college setting*, 18. Washington, DC: U.S. Department of Justice.

Mortensen, P., & Gesa E. K. (1996). *Ethics and representation in qualitative studies of literacy*. Urbana, IL: National College of Teachers of English.

Neil, R. E. (1980). A history of campus security – early origins. *Campus Law Enforcement Journal*, *10*, 28-30.

Nichols, D. (1987). *The administration of public safety in higher education*. Springfield, IL: Thomas Publisher, Ltd.

Nichols, D. (1997). *Creating a safe campus: A guide for college and university administrators*. Springfield, IL: Thomas Publisher, Ltd.

O'Malley, T. (April, 1997). Managing for ethics: A mandate for administrators. Retrieved July 16, 2005 from: *http://www.fbi.gov/publications/leb/1997/leb97.htm*.

Patton, M. Q. (2002). *Qualitative evaluation and research methods*. Newbury Park, CA: Sage.

Peckham, H. (1967). *The making of the University of Michigan*. Ann Arbor, MI: University of Michigan Press. In Gelber, Seymour (Ed.), *The role of campus security in the college setting*, 27. Washington, DC: U.S. Department of Justice.

Piaget, J. (1983). *Piaget's Theory*. In P. Mussen (ed), *Handbook of Child Psychology*. New York: Wiley.

Pizzaro, D. A., & Bloom, P. (2003). The Intelligence of the Moral Intuitions: Comment on Haidt (2001). *Psychological Review*, *110*, 193–196.

Police integrity in a changing environment, United States Department of Justice. Retrieved July 7, 2005 from: *http://www.cops.usdoj.gov/?Item=799*.

Pollock, J. M. (1993) *Ethics in crime and justice: Dilemmas and decisions*. Belmont, WA: Wadsworth.

Pollock, J. M., & Becker, R. F. (1995). Law enforcement ethics: Using officers' dilemmas as a teaching tool. *Journal of Criminal Justice Education, 6*, 2-20.

Powell, J. W., Pander, M. S., & Nielsen, R. C. (1994). *Campus security and law enforcement*. Newton, MS: Butterworth-Heinemann.

Power, F. C., Higgins, A., & Kohlberg, L. (1989). Lawrence Kohlberg's approach to moral education. New York: Columbia University Press.

Punch, M. (1985). *Conduct unbecoming: The social construction of police deviance and control*. London: Tavistock Publications.

Rachlin, H. (1995). National Institute of Ethics: Dedicated to integrity in law enforcement. *Law & Order Magazine, 43*, 81-86.

Rapkin, A. (1994). Teaching ethics across the curriculum. *Innovation Abstracts*, 16.

Rainguet, F. W. (1992). No excuses management. *The Police Chief, 59,* 18-21. Arlington, VA.

Redlinger, L. J. (1993). *A study of ethics instruction in police academies in Texas*. Dallas, TX: Southwestern Law Enforcement Institute.

Richardson, L. B. (1932). *History of Dartmouth College*. Hanover, NH: Dartmouth College Press. In Gelber, Seymour (Ed.), *The role of campus security in the college setting*, 18. Washington, DC: U.S. Department of Justice.

Robinette, H. M. (January, 1991). Police ethics: Leadership and ethics training for police administrators. *The Police Chief, 58*, 42-49.

Rossman, G. B., & Rallis, S. F. (1998). *Learning in the field: An introduction to qualitative research*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.

Schmalleger, F. (1991). *Criminal justice ethics*. Portsmouth, NH: Greenwood.

Schwandt, T. A. (1994). Constructivist, interpretivist approaches to human inquiry. In N. K. Denzin & Y. S. Lincoln (Eds.), *Handbook of qualitative research* (pp. 118-137). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Senge, P. (2006). *The fifth discipline: The art & practice of the learning organization*. New York: Doubleday.

Sherman, L. W. (1974). *Police corruption: A sociological perspective*. Garden City, NJ: Doubleday.

Sherman, L. W. (1978). *The quality of police Education: A critical review with recommendations for improving programs in higher education*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass, Inc.

Sherman, L. (1999). Learning police ethics. In L. Gaines & G. Cordner (Eds.), *Policing perspectives: An anthology*. Los Angeles: Roxbury.

Sims, O. S. (1971). *New directions in campus law enforcement: A handbook for administrators*. Athens, GA: University of Georgia Press.

Sloan, J. J. (1992). The modern campus police: An analysis of their evolution, structure and function. *American Journal of Police*, *15*(2), 31-48.

Sloan, J. J., & Fisher, B. S. (1995). *Campus crime: Legal, social, and policy perspectives*. Spingfield, IL: Charles Thomas Publishing.

Smith, J. (November, 1997). Sharp, sharp slogan reflects UT values. *On campus – the University of Texas at Austin*, *25*(6), 2.

Smith, K. A., & Waller, A. A. (1997). Cooperative learning for new college teachers. In Wm. E. Campbell & Karl A. Smith (Eds.), *New paradigms for college teaching*. Edina, MN: Interaction Book Company.

Smith, M. C. (1989). *Crime and campus police: A handbook for police officers and administrators*. Asheville, NC: College Administration Publications.

Souryal, S. S. (1998). *Ethics in criminal justice: In search of the truth*. Cincinnati, OH: Anderson Publishing Company.

Stake, R. E. (1994). Case studies. In Denzin, N. K. & Lincoln, Y. S. (Eds.), *Handbook of qualitative research* (pp. 236-247). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.

Stake, R. E. (1995). *The art of case study*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.

Stanage, S. (1995). Values: Professional ethics and educational administration. *School Business Affairs*, *61*, 45-50.

Strauss, A. L., & Corbin, J. M. (2002). *Basics of qualitative research: Grounded theory procedures and techniques*. Newbury Park, CA: Sage.

Swope, R. E. (January, 1998). Ethics in law enforcement: The core-virtue bell curve. *The Police Chief*, *2*(1), 37-38.

Sykes, G. W. (October, 1993). Why police ethics? *The Ethics Roll Call*, *1*(1), 4. Plano, TX: Center for Law Enforcement Ethics.

Trautman, N. E., & Prevost, A. (June 2005). National institute of ethics (no page number). Police ethics training state-of-the-art now more effective and comprehensive. Retrieved July 14, 2005 from: *http://www.ethicsinstitute.com/EthicsTraining.htm*.

Trautman, N. E. (1997). *The cutting edge of police integrity*. Longwood, FL: National Institute of Ethics.

Trautman, N. E. (January, 2001)**.** Police code of silence: Facts revealed. *Law & Order Magazine, 49*(1), 68-76.

U.S. Department of Justice (December, 2005). Enhancing police integrity. *National Institute of Justice*, 2-10. Office of Justice Programs: Washington, D.C.

Van Slyke, J. M. (May/June 1996). The Ethical standards of the law enforcement profession. *Campus Law Enforcement Journal, 26*, (3), 18-21. West Hartford, CT: International Association of Campus Law Enforcement Administrators

Van Wagner, K. (August, 2006). Kohlberg's theory of moral development. Retrieved December 13, 2006 from: *http://psychology.about.com/od/developmentalpsychology/a/kohlberg.htm*.

Veugelers, W. (February, 2000). Different ways of teaching values. *Educational Review*, *52* (1), 37-46.

Vicchio, S. J. (January, l997). Police Integrity: Public Service with Honor. *US Department of Justice*, 11-17.

Walker, J. (2005). Law enforcement field training models: Is it time for a change? *Campus Law Enforcement Journal*, *35*(5), 23-30.

Weiser, W. (1914). *Yale memories*. New Haven, CT: Morehouse and Taylor. In Nichols, David (Ed.), *The Administration of public safety in higher education*, 8. Springfield, IL: Thomas Publisher, Ltd.

Yin, R. K. (1993). *Applications of case study research*. Newbury Park, CA: Sage.

Yin, R. K. (2003). *Case study research design and methods*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.

Zenger, S. K., & Zenger, W. F. (1990). Strategies and techniques for teaching: With lesson design and micro-teaching guidelines. Saratoga, CA: R & E Publishers, Inc.

Vita

I, Jeffrey Matthew Van Slyke, was born on October 13, 1959 in Oneida, New York to Gerald L. and Diane M. Van Slyke, and graduated from Jamesville-DeWitt High School in Syracuse, New York. As a first generation college attendee, I attended Auburn University on a track/cross-country scholarship, and graduated in 1982 with a Bachelor of Science in Criminal Justice from Auburn University. I then began my law enforcement career as a police officer for the City of Sylacauga, Alabama, and served as an officer at two other Alabama municipalities: Oxford and Piedmont. After three years in police work, I then served as a corrections officer for nearly three years for the United States Federal Bureau of Prisons in Talladega, Alabama. In 1988, I transitioned to the field of higher education law enforcement by working as the Parking Services Manager for the Auburn University Police Department. In October of 1989, at the age of 29, I accepted the position of chief of police at the University of North Carolina at Asheville and served seven years. During my tenure at UNC-Asheville, I earned a Master Degree in Public Administration from Western Carolina University in 1992. It was also during this time in my career that I realized my calling was in the field of higher education law enforcement. In 1996, I accepted the chief of police position at the University of Iowa and served for three years. In September of 1999, I accepted the chief of police position at the University of Texas at Austin, and served for nearly six years. In the Fall of 2002, I entered the Higher Education Administration Program at the University of Texas at Austin. Presently, I have served as police chief at the University of Mississippi since June of 2005. Each department I have served in required a great degree of change related to the ethical practices of police officers.

As a result, I have entered this study with 22 years of law enforcement practice that includes experience as a municipal police officer, a federal corrections officer, and as police chief in higher education law enforcement. I have attended law enforcement academies in Alabama, Georgia, North Carolina, Iowa, Texas, and Mississippi. I have also had the privilege of attending the Federal Bureau of Investigation Law Enforcement National Academy in Quantico, Virginia, and threat assessment training provided by the United States Secret Service.

As a living document, I realize there are still many things in life to learn and experiences to be had. The field of higher education law enforcement has provided opportunities for me to have a positive impact on people's lives, to serve with integrity, and to utilize the experiences of life to continually form my character. For this, I am truly thankful. Moreover, by serving in the capacity of a police chief, I have developed an even greater interest in the education and training of police officers. Specifically, this interest lies within the realm of police ethics. Since the most important aspect of this appendix was to divulge any bias or prejudice, it is duly noted that the researcher is an advocate for improving the adult learning process of police academy training venues and campus police in-service training programs, by using the preferred modes to teach police ethics.

Permanent address: 614 Grove Forest Way, Oxford, Mississippi 38655

This treatise was typed by Jeffrey M. VanSlyke.